

HISTORY
of
OKLAHOMA

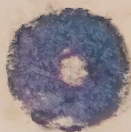
By WYATT *and* RAINEY

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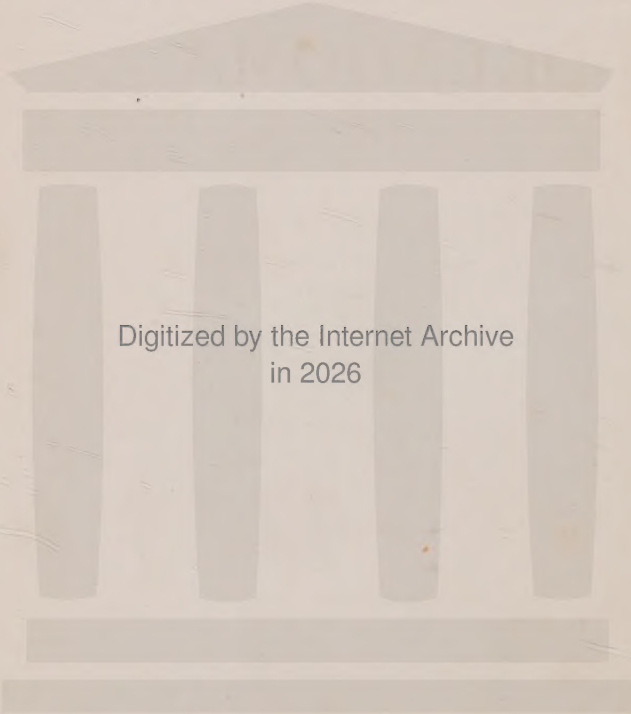
Walter Payne

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BRIEF HISTORY *of* OKLAHOMA

BY

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PREFACE

This introductory outline of the study of the history of Oklahoma has been designed for the use of the pupils of the public schools of the state. At best, the time of both teacher and pupil for instruction or study in such a branch is limited. All details which are not of essential importance have been omitted, even though many of them would be interesting as well as instructive. References are given for the benefit of teachers or interested pupils who wish to do more thorough work in this branch. In addition to the sources of material just alluded to, books and magazines containing much that pertains to the local history of Oklahoma are multiplying and may be found in most of the public libraries of the state.

Teachers are urged to emphasize the value of maps in the study of the history of Oklahoma. A number of these are reproduced in this outline.

This text has been prepared for the grades and has been limited to the requirements of one semester's work.

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PART I
INTRODUCTORY

CHAPTER I

PREHISTORIC INHABITANTS

History is the written record of the principal events in the life of a nation, a state or a community. A country whose people do not know how to read and write and who therefore have not preserved such a record cannot be said to have a history. They are commonly called prehistoric people, meaning literally a people who lived before history began. The study of the life and customs of prehistoric peoples is called archaeology.

Like other states of the American Union, Oklahoma was inhabited by people of the Red, or Indian race, long before those of the White, or Caucasian race, came to settle in America. The people of this race have copper-colored skins and straight, black hair. They did not all belong to one tribe, neither did they all speak the same language. Sometimes one tribe was driven out by another during the course of a war, the conquerors thus becoming the owners of the country for a time until they, too, were overpowered and driven out by the people of still another tribe. Disease and famine may have reduced and weakened some tribes until they were so few in number that they could no longer withstand the attacks of stronger enemies.

A knowledge of prehistoric people and of their habits, customs and traits is largely gained by the study of the implements, weapons, utensils and ornaments of stone, bone, shell, clay and copper, which may be found on or near the surface of the ground upon their

village and shop sites or by digging in their graves, mounds or other earth-works. Arrow and spear points, knife blades, scrapers, drills and many other implements and weapons were made of flint, chert, quartz or some other hard stone that could be chipped or flaked. Axes, hammers and mauls were made of stone and were grooved for the fitting of the wooden handles. Awls, needles, shuttles and other implements and tools were made of bone. Their pottery was made of clay, moulded into the desired form and hardened by fire. Beads, ear-rings and many other ornaments were made of bone, stone, shell or copper. The traces of their ancient camp fires, which may be uncovered in some places, contain the bones of game animals and birds, fish, reptiles, the shells of mussels and clams scattered through the wood ashes and charcoal.

Just how long ago the first Indian tribe made its appearance in the country which is now called Oklahoma is not known but it must have been many hundreds of years, possibly some thousands of years ago. A stone which had been worn hollow by use in grinding corn, roots or dried meat, was found nearly three feet below the surface of the ground in digging a cellar, in Harmon County. Several similar grinding stones were taken from a sand pit which was overlaid by two feet of clay soil, in Custer County. A flint arrow point was found six feet beneath the surface in a sand pit, overlaid by three feet of soil, near Oklahoma City. As none of these had been buried by the hands of men and, as soils and clays drift and accumulate very slowly, it is plain that they must have been there a long time.

In the northeastern part of Oklahoma there once lived a tribe of prehistoric people who made their homes in caves and underneath overhanging ledges of

rock. Deep layers of kitchen or camp fire refuse—wood ashes, charcoal, broken bones, clam shells and fragments of pottery, with occasional implements of bone or stone, are to be found on the floors of these ancient cave-dwellings. The people who lived in these places are called Cave Dwellers.

Another tribe of people who once lived in the eastern part of Oklahoma, in the valleys of the Red and Arkansas rivers, built great mounds of earth which endure to this day. These are of various shapes, including cones and pyramids. The purposes for which these mounds were built are not known. Some of them may have been erected as monuments. Others are thought to have been used as altars or shrines in the performance of religious ceremonies. The people who built these mounds are commonly referred to as the Mound Builders.

Scattered over the fields of more than twenty counties in the eastern and southeastern portions of Oklahoma there are countless thousands of small, circular knolls or mounds of earth. These are not nearly so large as the mounds of the Mound Builders. The farmers plow over these knolls and the roads cut through them, yet few people know what made them. Recent investigation proves each one to be the ruin of a timber-framed, dome-shaped, earth-covered human habitation. The people who built and occupied such peculiar homes are believed to have lived in that part of the country from five hundred to one thousand years ago. They lived in fixed villages and cultivated the soil. In burying their dead, in their valley land cornfields, they buried urns, vases, bowls and bottles of earthenware, many of which were very artistic in design and decoration. For the lack of a better name they may be called the Earth-House People.

In the northeastern part of Kay County and in the western part of Cimarron County there are quarries from which the people of prehistoric times secured material for the manufacture of arrow points, spear heads, knives, scrapers and other weapons, tools and implements. In one form or another, traces of primitive or prehistoric life may be found in nearly every county in the state.

CHAPTER II

THE NATIVE TRIBES

Several tribes of Indians lived in or ranged over parts of the present state of Oklahoma at the beginning of the historic period, when men of the white race first began to explore this part of the continent. These tribes included the Caddo, which ranged over the valley of Red River, in the southeastern part of the state; the Wichita, which occupied the southwestern part of the state; the Quapaw, which ranged across the eastern border along the valley of the Arkansas; the Osage, ranging across the valleys of the Grand and Verdigris rivers in the northeastern part of the state; the Comanche, which roamed over the plains in the western part of the state, and the Ute, which occupied the extreme western part of old No-Man's-Land.

Of these tribes, the Caddo and Wichita people could rightly claim to be the oldest inhabitants of the state, as they were the descendants of the Earth-House people, though many of their habits and customs had undergone a change. They still lived in fixed villages but their houses were thatched with grass instead of being covered with earth. Like their forefathers, they also cultivated the soil, raising corn, beans, pumpkins and melons.

The people of the Osage and Quapaw tribes were much alike in disposition and habits, their forefathers having been members of the same tribe, originally, and they spoke the same language with but slight difference in dialect. They had fixed villages where

they built bark covered houses and near which they cultivated small patches of corn. Much of their time, in the fall and winter, was spent away from these villages, hunting buffalo and other game. At such times they lived in lodges made of poles and covered with buffalo skins.

The people of the Comanche tribe lived entirely by hunting, their principal food being the flesh of the buffalo. They lived in lodges made of poles and covered with buffalo skins. These lodges could be easily taken down and moved from place to place. They did not attempt to cultivate the soil, though they gathered certain roots, fruits and herbs for food and they occasionally traded with the people of other tribes for corn. The people of the Ute tribe were somewhat similar to those of the Comanche tribe, to whom they were distantly related. Their habits were quite different, however, as they always stayed in the hilly or mountainous country.

The people of several other tribes began to range over parts of Oklahoma after the earlier exploration, including the Kiowas and certain bands of Delawares, Shawnees and Kickapoos. Of the six tribes which ranged over portions of Oklahoma when white men first began to explore this part of the country, all except one (Ute) still live in the state.

Some of the Indian tribes lived at peace with several of the neighboring tribes. Between others there was always a feeling of enmity and they were seldom or never at peace with each other.

The people of each tribe were divided into bands, each of which was under the leadership of a chief. The authority of these chiefs was due more to personal influence than political power. Each band usually pitched its encampment or village at some

distance from the others, though at times several bands encamped together.

The Indian population which was scattered over Oklahoma before the tribes from east of the Mississippi river began to settle within its limits was never large. This population probably did not exceed 20,000 at any one time. Because of the roaming disposition of some of the tribes, who ranged over several adjoining states as well, the whole population at other times may not have been more than half that number.

CHAPTER III

FRENCH AND SPANISH EXPLORATIONS

Not quite fifty years after the discovery of America by Columbus the first white men penetrated the interior of the continent as far as Oklahoma. In 1541 there were two Spanish exploring expeditions in the United States—one, under De Soto, threading the forests and swamps of the Mississippi Valley; the other, under Coronado, traversing the vast treeless wilderness of the Great Plains in the western part of the state. Some authorities believe that De Soto's expedition crossed the border of Oklahoma in the valley of the Arkansas, in the eastern part of the state. That Coronado entered Oklahoma seems reasonably certain, for the records of his journey are much more complete than those of the De Soto expedition. However, neither of them led to the establishment of settlements or colonies, so they are of interest to the people of the present day only because they were the first white men to visit this region. Both expeditions were undertaken in search for gold and precious stones, though De Soto also wished to find the fabled fountain of youth. Both ended in disappointment and one (De Soto's) in disaster.

Other Spanish exploring expeditions from Mexico passed into or across Oklahoma during the ensuing century and a half but, like Coronado and De Soto, they left little to remind one of their deeds. An iron spear-head which was plowed up by a farmer in Oklahoma County, a fragment of a steel breast-plate which was brought to light in excavating for the foundation

of the dam at the water works reservoir near Oklahoma City, and an iron stirrup which was found in Major County are some of the reminders of the Spanish explorers. They doubtless named the more important rivers and streams of Oklahoma but most of these have long since been forgotten. Indeed, the Cimar-ron River is the only stream of importance in Oklahoma which has a Spanish name.

No French explorers arrived in Oklahoma until after the last Spanish explorations had been made. Unlike the Spanish explorers, who were always in search of gold, the French explorers were seeking to enlarge their trade in furs. The Spanish explorers, who came from Mexico, a dry country with but few rivers, traveled with trains of horses and pack-mules. The French explorers, on the other hand, came from Canada and the Mississippi River country, where they were accustomed to travel by water, in canoes. So, when the French explorers came into Oklahoma it was by way of the rivers up which they paddled their canoes. The southern part of the state was explored by ascending the Red River from Louisiana and the central and northern parts of the state were explored by ascending the Arkansas River and its principal tributaries.

The leader of the first French exploring party in Oklahoma was Bernard de La Harpe. His expedition came up the Red River as far as the mouth of the Kiamitia, in 1719, and explored the southeastern part of the state. In 1721, La Harpe returned to Oklahoma, ascending the Arkansas River and exploring the eastern part of the state. Soon after the first French explorers visited Oklahoma, French fur traders and trappers began to visit the various portions of the state which could be reached by canoe navigation.

The French explorers left their marks upon the map of Oklahoma in the form of the French names which are still borne by rivers, streams and mountains—such as the Poteau, Illinois, Grand and Verdigris rivers, Sans Bois, Cache and Salaison (Sallisaw) creeks and Mount Cavanal.

Both Spain and France laid claim to the country now included within the bounds of Oklahoma because of the discoveries and explorations which were made by Spanish and French subjects.

Reference Work: "The Coronado Expedition, 1540-1542," by George Parker Winship, in the Fourteenth Annual Report of the Bureau of American Ethnology, Part 1, pp. 339-598.

CHAPTER IV

THE FRENCH TRADERS

When the French laid claim to lands tributary to the Mississippi River they planned to extend their trade over the region thus acquired. The only people who then lived in what is now Oklahoma were those of several Indian tribes. The only things which these Indians had to sell or trade and for which the French traders cared to barter were the skins of fur-bearing animals. These included the beaver, otter, mink, muskrat, and several others, all of which were then more or less common in Oklahoma and for which there was a great demand in Europe. They also bought or traded for the beautifully tanned buffalo robes which were to be had in every Indian village. In exchange for these articles, the French traders gave knives, beads, axes, hatchets, hoes, brightly colored cloths, mirrors, paints and other things of trifling value which appealed to the fancy of the Indians.

The French traders found their way into remote parts of Oklahoma by way of small boats—canoes made of tree trunks, hollowed out by fire—with which they paddled or poled their way up the rivers and larger creeks. The traders who dealt with the Indians of the southern part of Oklahoma came up the Red River, from Louisiana. Those who came to deal with the Indians of the central and northern parts of the state came up the Arkansas River from the settlements near its mouth. These French traders left little or nothing behind them in the way of written records, yet the occasional finding of relics of that

fur-trading era, which began nearly two hundred years ago, give hints of the brave men who went forth into the great wilderness to trade and gather furs. A rusted iron bullet-mould, which was found two feet beneath the surface of the ground when digging for the foundation of a house in Oklahoma City, and a large skinning knife that had been made by a blacksmith, which was found in digging a trench at Cushing, might be mentioned as reminders of that period. In Kay County, on the bank of the Arkansas River, there is an Indian village site upon which there have been plowed up not only the bone and stone implements and weapons of the Indians in their primitive condition but also the battered iron axes, hatchets and hoes which had been secured from the French traders. At one edge of the village site is a horseshoe-shaped trench which apparently marks the position of a stockaded French trading post.

The French traders always strove to make friends with the Indians and to treat them kindly. For this reason they generally found the Indians peaceable and friendly. In 1763, at the close of the French and Indian War, the French possessions west of the Mississippi River, then known as the Province of Louisiana, were transferred to Spain and, for forty years, were included as a part of the Spanish dominions in North America. In 1803, Napoleon Bonaparte compelled the kingdom of Spain to return the Province of Louisiana to France and, shortly afterward, he sold this vast region to the United States. As all of Oklahoma, except the three counties lying west of the 100th meridian, was included in this purchase, most of it became a part of the domain of the United States of America at that time. Although, for forty years, the rulers of the Province of Louisiana had been Span-

iards, the people were French, and French traders still continued to paddle their canoes up the rivers of Oklahoma to trade with the Indians.

It was just before the close of this period, in 1802, that the first permanent white settlement was made in Oklahoma. This was a trading post which was established by the Chouteau Brothers, of St. Louis, who came to trade with the Osage Indians, who then ranged over the valleys of the Grand and Verdigris rivers. It was located on the east bank of the Grand River, in Mayes County, upon the site of the present town of Salina.

PART II

AMERICAN OCCUPATION

CHAPTER I

AMERICAN EXPLORATIONS

The formal transfer of the Province of Louisiana from France to the United States took place in May, 1804. By this act the greater part of Oklahoma became a part of the dominions of the United States. It was not immediately occupied, for, as yet, there were but few settlements in the Louisiana country, and those were all in the states immediately bordering on the Mississippi River.

As soon as possible after the transfer of Louisiana Province from France to the United States, arrangements were made to explore the newly acquired territory. The first expedition sent out was that of Captains Lewis and Clark, leaving St. Louis in 1804, which ascended the Missouri River to the Rocky Mountains. Two years later, two other expeditions were sent to explore other portions of the Louisiana country. One of these was commanded by Lieutenant Zebulon M. Pike, who went westward, across Kansas, to the Rocky Mountains in Colorado. Lieutenant James B. Wilkinson, with five soldiers, was sent down the Arkansas River from the central part of Kansas. Lieutenant Wilkinson wrote a description of his journey down the Arkansas across Oklahoma. The other expedition, under the command of Captain Richard Sparks, was to explore the Red River to its source. It was met, near the southeastern corner of Oklahoma, by a superior force of Spanish troops and was compelled to turn back. The French traders from Louisiana and from the lower Arkansas still continued to visit the Oklahoma country and to trade with the

Indians but very few of the English speaking Americans penetrated this remote interior until after the close of the War of 1812.

In 1817, a military post, which was called Fort Smith, was established at the mouth of the Poteau River, on the eastern border of Oklahoma. Most of the soldiers in its first garrison had served under General Andrew Jackson at the battle of New Orleans, only a little more than two years before. A few white people had already settled along the Arkansas and Red rivers in eastern Oklahoma a year or two before that, but these were afterward compelled to remove. The same year that Fort Smith was established, two Americans, Robert M. French and Samuel M. Rutherford, established a trading post on the Verdigris River, a few miles north of Muskogee. Other American traders began to visit Oklahoma within a year or two after that. In 1819, Thomas Nuttall, an English naturalist, visited eastern Oklahoma and wrote an interesting account of his journey. The next year Major Stephen H. Long, of the Army, who had selected the site of Fort Smith, entered the state from the west while on his return from an expedition to the Rocky Mountains and he, too, wrote an entertaining description of his journey across Oklahoma.

In 1820, the first mission in Oklahoma, for the purpose of educating the Indians and converting them to the Christian religion, was established near the mouth of Chouteau Creek, in Mayes County. In 1824, two military posts were established in Oklahoma—Fort Gibson, on the east bank of Grand River, several miles above its mouth, and Fort Towson, which was located a few miles from the mouth of the Kiamitia River, in the southeastern part of the state. These military posts were located for the purpose of maintaining

forces of troops to preserve order among the Indians and the restless, unruly white element which sought refuge in the wilderness beyond the frontier settlements.

For several years before the establishment of Forts Gibson and Towson, there had been much discussion of the question of setting apart a great tract of land for the settlement of Indian tribes from east of the



HOSPITAL AT OLD FORT GIBSON

Mississippi River. It was proposed to call it the Indian Territory. A great reservation, embracing all that part of Oklahoma lying between the Red River, on the south, and the Arkansas and Canadian rivers, on the north, had already been assigned to the Choctaw tribe of Indians, the people of which then lived in Mississippi and Alabama. Then a reservation was assigned to the Creek tribe between the Arkansas

and Canadian rivers. The Creek people were then living in Georgia and Alabama, but some of them began to move to this new reservation within a year after the establishment of Fort Gibson.

Throughout this period travel and trade with the rest of the world was still conducted by means of boats on the rivers. Larger boats than the canoes had come into use, however. The keel-boat, which was made of lumber and which could readily carry a cargo of several tons, had come into use among the traders. On the up-stream voyage it was dragged by men who walked on the bank of the river and pulled a long rope. One trader, Thomas James, of Illinois, tried to navigate the Cimarron River with a keel-boat in 1821, but it was too shallow. In 1823, with another keel-boat, he ascended the North Canadian as far as Keokuk Falls, in the northern part of Pottawatomic County. Above that he had to transport his stock of goods by means of canoes made of tree trunks to a point in the western part of the state, where he traded with the Comanches and Kiowas. The first steamboat ascended the Arkansas River to Fort Smith, in 1820.

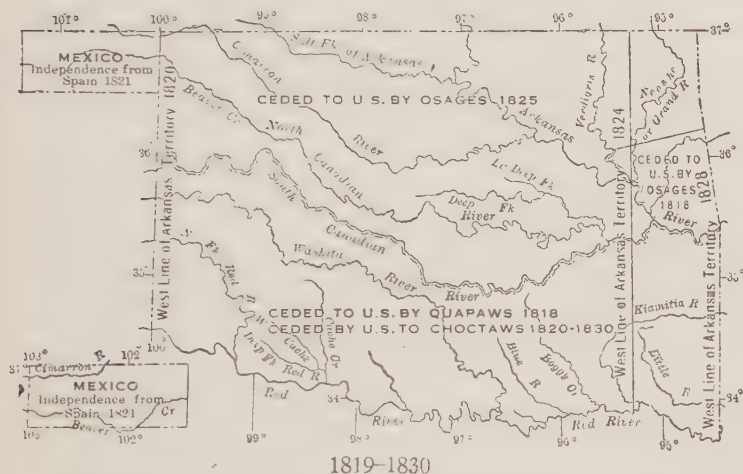
Reference Works: "Expedition of Lieutenant Zebulon Montgomery Pike, 1805-07," edited by Elliott Coues, 3 volumes; New York, Francis P. Harper.

Thomas Nuttall's "Travels Into Arkansas Territory, 1819, with Observations on the Aborigines," edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites (Early Western Travels Series); Cleveland, the Arthur H. Clark Company.

"Account of an Expedition from Pittsburgh to the Rocky Mountains, 1819-20," compiled from the notes of Major S. H. Long, T. Say and others, by Edwin James, edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites (Western Travels Series); Cleveland, The Arthur H. Clark Company.

"The Journal of Jacob Fowler, Narrating an Adventure from Arkansas, through the Rio Grande del Norte, 1821-22," edited by Elliott Coues; New York, Francis P. Harper.

"Three Years Among the Indians and Mexicans," by Thomas James, edited by Walter B. Douglas; St. Louis, the Missouri Historical Society.



The treaty with Spain, 1819, fixed the boundary of Louisiana as follows:

"Up the Sabine to the 32d parallel; thence directly north to the Red River; along the Red River to the 100th meridian; up the 100th meridian to Arkansas River; up the Arkansas River to the Rocky Mountains, following the trend of the Rocky Mountains to the 42d parallel. All of Oklahoma was included in the Louisiana Purchase of 1803, except the Panhandle, which was left in possession of Spain by treaty of 1819.

Arkansas territory was formed by Act of Congress March 2, 1819, and included all of the present state of Oklahoma except that portion west of the 100th meridian, which at that time formed part of the Spanish possessions in North America.

In 1824 Congress made the western boundary of Arkansas territory a due north and south line from a point forty miles west of the southwest corner of Missouri to the Red River.

In 1828 its western boundary was fixed at the present western boundary of Arkansas.

CHAPTER II

THE MIGRATION OF THE INDIAN TRIBES

During the two centuries which had passed since the settlement of the first English colonies on the Atlantic coast, the Indians had been gradually forced back into the interior of the country. Within a few years after the close of the War of 1812, a number of new states were admitted to the Union. Certain Indian tribes still occupied parts of these states as well as parts of several of the original thirteen states. The lands which were owned and occupied by these Indians were called reservations. The Indians were not citizens of the states in which they lived and they were not subject to state laws. They did not pay taxes on their land or other property. There were many white people who wanted the Indian lands. Lawless white men lurked around the Indian reservations, selling whiskey to the Indians, gambling with them and stealing from them. While such conditions prevailed, it was only natural that there should be feelings of suspicion and jealousy and hatred between some of the people of the two races. So, some of the white people wanted the Indians moved away to the west where they would be out of the way, in order that their lands might be settled by white farmers and planters. Other white people, who were real friends of the Indians, wanted to see the people of these tribes moved to new reservations west of the Mississippi, in order to get them away from the unpleasant surroundings in which they were then situated. Most of the Indians did not want to move. They were attached to the land where their

people had lived for hundreds of years by many ties and the thought of leaving grieved them. But the will and the wishes of the Indians were not consulted. Instead, by coaxing and persuading and threatening, treaties or agreements which provided for the removal of these tribes to new reservations west of the Mississippi were made and signed. Fraud and misrepresentation were used in inducing the Indians to sign some of these treaties, but the Indians were forced to abide by them.

The establishment of an Indian Territory had been proposed as early as 1820 and Congress finally passed an act, in 1830, providing that there should be such a territory. In the meantime, a number of reservations had been assigned to various tribes. These reservations were scattered over the country between the Platte and Red rivers, west of Missouri and Arkansas. So, a large part of the present states of Nebraska, Kansas and Oklahoma became known as the Indian Territory and such it remained for twenty-five years.

The largest Indian tribes that were living east of the Mississippi River were found in the southern states—the Cherokees, who lived in the mountainous portions of North Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia and Alabama, the Creeks or Muskogees, who lived in Georgia and Alabama, the Choctaws, who lived in Alabama and Mississippi, and the Chickasaws, whose home was in Mississippi and Tennessee. Reservations had been assigned to the Indians of the Choctaw and Creek tribes and some of the people of these tribes began to move to the Indian Territory as early as 1825. Many of the Cherokee people had previously moved west of the Mississippi River and had settled in Arkansas, where they became known as the Western Cherokees.

In 1828, the United States made a treaty with the Western Cherokees in which they were assigned to a new reservation in the northeastern part of what is now Oklahoma. Seven years later, in 1835, a treaty was made with part of the main body of the Cherokee tribe, which was still living in their old home country in the east, in which it was provided that the whole tribe should be moved to the new reservation of the Western Cherokees. Because this treaty was made by a few members of the tribe who were acting without authority, the main body of the tribe refused to be bound by it, but the United States insisted upon enforcing its terms and the Cherokee people were compelled to leave their homes and move to the west, which they did in 1838 and 1839. The main bodies of the Creek and Choctaw tribes had likewise been forced to leave the lands where their fathers had lived since long before the white men came and moved to their new reservations west of the Mississippi River. In 1837, the people of the Chickasaw tribe sold their lands to the United States and bought an interest in the Choctaw reservation to which they moved soon afterward.

Most of the Indians of these tribes moved westward in caravans and wagon trains and many of them came on steam-boats which ascended the Arkansas and Red rivers. They suffered great sorrow at being rudely torn from their old homes. During the course of their westward journeys, there was much sickness among them. Hundreds died and were buried in unmarked graves along the roads over which they were traveling. Because of this, the people of these tribes were wont to speak of the roads over which they came into the Indian Territory as "the Trail of Tears." Many died of sheer homesickness, even after they had arrived at the end of their journey.

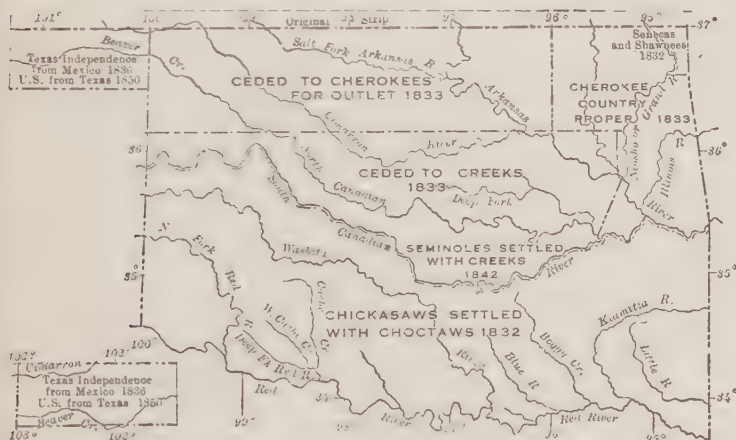
Reference Works: "History of the Choctaw, Chickasaw and Natchez Indians," by H. B. Cushman, 1899; Greenville, Texas.

"The Cherokee Nation of Indians," by Charles C. Royce, Fifth Annual Report of the Bureau of American Ethnology, pp. 121-378.

"History of American Missions to the Heathen from Their Commencement to the Present Time," 1840; Worcester, Mass., Spooner and Howland.

"Annual Register of Indian Affairs within the Indian or Western Territory." 1835-6-7-8, by Rev. Isaac McCoy.

"History of Baptist Indian Missions," by Rev. Isaac McCoy; New York, R. & S. Raynor, 1840.



1830-1850

Treaties granting lands to the Creeks and Cherokees had been made in 1826 and 1828 respectively, but as it was discovered that a portion of the same land, through error, had been granted to each, by a joint agreement made in 1833, the boundaries between the two nations were fixed as here shown.

The Cherokee grant of 1828 also included that granted to the Senecas and Shawnees in 1832.

The eastern boundary of the Cherokee Outlet was not definitely fixed until 1866.

CHAPTER III

SETTLEMENT OF THE TRIBES

After the main body of the Cherokees had arrived at their new reservation in the West, they had to cut down trees, build log cabins, and clear land for cultivation. They were still homesick and many of them cherished a feeling of resentment or hatred for those of their number who had signed the treaty which resulted in the removal of the tribe. This finally led to the assassination of Major Ridge, John Ridge, Elias Boudinot and others, who were the leaders of the "treaty party," as it was called. This was the beginning of the feud, or war-like quarrel, between the Ridge, or "treaty party," and the Ross, or "anti-treaty," the latter being so named because John Ross, who, as principal chief of the tribe, had led the opposition to the treaty and its enforcement.

When the Indians of these immigrant tribes came to the west, they were accompanied by the missionaries who had been laboring among them as teachers and preachers in their old reservations east of the Mississippi. New mission stations were built, with churches and schools, and printing presses and shops and mills as well as farms. These missionaries represented five denominations — Baptist, Congregational, Methodist, Moravian and Presbyterian. The English language was taught in all of these mission schools, but many of the older Indians were taught to read in their own languages, in which books, tracts, hymns, songs and portions of the Bible were printed. The Cherokee people had an alphabet which had been in-

vented by one of their own number, Se quo-yah by name. This alphabet, which consisted of eighty-six characters, represented every possible syllable in the Cherokee language, so that any Cherokee who learned it was able to read without further instruction. The alphabet used by the Creek and Choctaw tribes was devised by Rev. John Fleming, a Presbyterian missionary among the Creek people. Nearly all of its nineteen characters were borrowed from the Roman alphabet.



SEQUOYAH

The methods of travel between the Indian Territory and the states to the eastward were improved during this period. The first steamboat to ascend the Arkansas River to the mouth of Grand River and land at Fort Gibson was the "Facility," commanded by Captain Phillip Pennywit, in 1828. Thereafter steamboats ascended the river to that post each year, carrying supplies and merchandise.

Explorers and travelers continued to visit the Indian Territory and to write about it during this period. The Santa Fe Trail, a wagon road extending from the

Missouri River to Santa Fe, New Mexico, was laid out by a commission representing the government of the United States in 1825-26. It crossed Cimarron County, in the extreme northwestern part of Oklahoma. In 1832, Washington Irving visited the Indian Territory and took a long horseback ride into the interior, including the valleys of the Cimarron and North Canadian rivers as far west as the central part of the state. Irving's book, "A Tour on the Prairies," tells the story of the trip and the various school buildings bearing the name of Irving, in Oklahoma towns and cities, mark Oklahoma's appreciation of his beautiful description of the country as he saw it. The Leavenworth expedition, in the summer of 1834, was of interest because it blazed the trail from the mouth of Grand River to Red River which afterward became known as "The Texas Road," over which so many pioneer families migrated to the neighboring state on the south. After marching up the valley of the Washita many of the soldiers were taken sick and a hospital camp was established on land which adjoins the site of the present town of Davis. There General Leavenworth and many of his men died. The mounted troops pushed on westward, to the valley of the North Fork of Red River, where a council was held with the Wichita, Comanche and Kiowa Indians, in the western part of Kiowa County.

Three military posts were established in the Indian Territory during this period—Fort Coffee, which was built on a picturesque bluff overlooking the Arkansas River in LeFlore County, about fifteen miles above Fort Smith, Fort Wayne, which was located in the Spavinaw Hills, in Delaware County, and Fort Washita, which occupied a commanding site overlooking the valley of the Washita River. Fort Coffee was

occupied by a garrison from 1834 to 1838, during which time the post at Fort Smith was abandoned. Fort Wayne was occupied from 1838 to 1842, and its commandant was Captain Nathan Boone, a son of Daniel Boone, the Kentucky pioneer. Fort Washita was garrisoned by United States troops from 1842 until it was abandoned at the outbreak of the Civil War, in 1861.

One of the notable events of this period was a great inter-tribal peace council which was held at Tahlequah, in the Cherokee Nation, in the summer of 1843. Twenty-three tribes of Indians were represented. James M. Stanley, an eminent portrait painter from Washington City, was present and painted many Indian portraits during the course of the council.

Reference Works: "A Tour on the Prairies," by Washington Irving.

"Dragoon Campaigns to the Rocky Mountains, Being a History of the Enlistment, Organization and First Campaigns of the Regiment of United States Dragoons," by A. Dragoon, 1836; New York, Wiley & Long.

"Myths of the Cherokee," by James Mooney, *Nineteenth Annual Report of Bureau of American Ethnology, Part I*, pp. 3-228.

"Life Among the Choctaws," by Henry C. Benson; Cincinnati, Western Methodist Book Concern, 1859.

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENT OF THE INDIAN TERRITORY

Among the events of importance in this period of Oklahoma history was the annexation of Texas and its admission as a state into the Union. Originally a part of the Republic of Mexico, it had revolted and declared its independence a few years before. Its annexation to the United States was one of the chief causes of the Mexican War. The history of Oklahoma is involved by reason of the fact that all of that part of Oklahoma lying west of the 100th meridian was included within the bounds of Texas when it was an independent republic, before it was annexed to the United States. In 1850, the state of Texas formally relinquished and ceded to the United States all that part of its domain which extended northward from latitude $36^{\circ} 30'$. This action was taken in order to comply with the provisions of the Missouri Compromise, of 1820, whereby it had been agreed that no more slave-holding territory north of that line should be admitted into the Union as states. The organization of the territories of Kansas (1854) and New Mexico (1850), together with this new northern boundary of Texas and the western boundary of the Cherokee Outlet, left an area of three degrees (166 miles) in length by one-half degree (thirty-four miles) in width which was never included within the bounds of any state or territory until it became a part of the Territory of Oklahoma, in 1890. Until that time, it was often called No-Man's-Land. It now includes the counties of Beaver, Cimarron and Texas.

At the outbreak of the Mexican War, in 1846, most of the soldiers of the garrisons at Forts Gibson and Towson and Washita were ordered to join the army on the southern border. Soldiers from other states marched across Oklahoma to Texas and New Mexico on their way to the same war. After the war ended, some of the troops which had taken part in it were again stationed at these posts in the Indian Territory.

In 1849, after the discovery of gold in California, when thousands of people were thronging across the continent toward the goldfields, a large party was formed at Fort Smith, on the eastern border of the Indian Territory and, with an escort of United States troops under the command of Captain Randolph B. Marcy, marched westward across Oklahoma toward Santa Fe, New Mexico. The trail made by this party of gold seekers crossed the Canadian River at the site of the present town of Purcell, in McClain County, and followed the divide between that stream and the Washita most of the way to the western border of Oklahoma. It was followed by other parties of gold seekers, emigrants and overland travelers during the succeeding years and it became known as the California Road. The same route was followed by the Pacific railway survey, by Lieutenant Amiel W. Whipple, in 1854. A number of Cherokee Indians went to California during the gold excitement, some of whom never returned to the Indian Territory.

When the territories of Kansas and Nebraska were organized, in 1854, the northern boundary of the Indian Territory was fixed on the 37th parallel of north latitude. This boundary line was surveyed in 1858 by a party under the command of Colonel Joseph E. Johnston, of the U. S. Army.

From the time they were moved to the Indian Ter-

ritory until 1855, the Chickasaw Indians had been citizens of the Choctaw Nation. Likewise, from the time the Seminole Indians had been brought west until 1856, the Seminole Indian had been citizens of the Creek Nation. Neither the Chickasaw nor Seminole people ever were satisfied with these arrangements, however, and, in 1855, they asked for separate tribal governments, which were organized during the following year. The written constitutions of the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations date from that time.

In 1858 and 1859, there was war between the white people and the Comanche Indians, who ranged over the western part of the Indian Territory. Several battles were fought, including one in Ellis County, near the Antelope Hills, and one near Rush Springs, in Grady County, and, although the whites were victorious, the Indians remained unconquered.

Late in the summer of 1859, the Caddo, Waco and several other small tribes of Indians which had been located on the Brazos reservation, in Texas, were brought to the Indian Territory and settled with the people of the Wichita tribe in the valley of the Washita, in what is now Caddo County. Fort Cobb, a new military post, was established for their protection. Fort Arbuckle, near the Washita River, in Murray County, had been established in 1851. Fort Towson was abandoned as a military post in 1852 and Fort Gibson was likewise abandoned in 1857.

Reference Works: "A Brief History of the Indian Mission Conference, Methodist Episcopal Church, South," by F. M. Moore; Muskogee, Phoenix Printing Company, 1899.

"Report of the Exploration of the Red River of Louisiana, in 1852," by Captain Randolph B. Marcy (Senate Executive Document No. 54, 32d Congress, 2d Session.)

"Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs," 1849 to 1860, inclusive.

CHAPTER V

THE LIFE AND CUSTOMS OF THE PEOPLE

After the troublesome times of enforced migration and settlement in a new country there followed a period of peace and prosperity among the Indians of the tribes which had immigrated from the southern states to Oklahoma. The younger Indians became reconciled to the change though many of the older people never did. Their country was not thickly peopled and wild game was abundant. They had many cattle, horses and swine and some sheep, most of which ran at large upon the open range of woodland and prairie. They tilled small fields of corn and cotton. Some of the Indians were slave owners, having brought their negro slaves with them when they came from the states east of the Mississippi. Many white men had intermarried in some of the tribes and a great many families were of mixed Indian and white descent. Some of the people, especially among the mixed-blood families, were well to do and their children were sent East to some of the states to complete their education.

Most of the people lived in log houses or cabins of one or two rooms. In nearly every case there was a large stone fireplace and chimney. Some of the wealthier mixed-blood families lived in larger houses of frame, stone or brick that would have been a credit to any community in the States. The people lived simply and much of what they had to eat and wear was produced at home. They killed and cured their own pork, dried their own beef and venison, ground

their own corn. Before cotton-gins were introduced, cotton was raised for home use, the seed being separated from the lint by hand. Both cotton and wool were carded, spun and woven into durable home-made fabrics, the spinning wheel and hand-loom forming part of the equipment of the best regulated homes.

The people were hospitable by nature and delighted to entertain their friends, so much time was spent in visiting friends, relatives or neighbors. Fishing parties, picnics, dances, ball plays, horse races, fox hunts and house raising "bees" also figured in the social affairs and popular sports.

Excepting the scattered clearings, most of the country was still in its original condition—a forest with limited areas of prairie scattered through it. Throughout its length and breadth it abounded in wild game—deer, bear, 'possum, 'coon, squirrels, rabbits, wild turkeys, bobwhite quail and prairie chickens while there were times when the skies were darkened by the flight of countless myriads of wild pigeons. The buffalo and antelope were always plentiful on the greater prairies, only two or three days' journey to the westward. Fish of several kinds were abundant in most of the streams. Wild bees were common and cutting down a "bee tree" to capture and possess its treasured stores of nectar was always a frolic, even when seasoned with a few stings. Gathering pecans, hickory nuts, walnuts, hazel nuts and chinquapins added to the pleasures of the autumn season. Not much attention was given to fruit culture by most of the people, a few seedling peach trees being about all that was to be found growing in many places. However, wild fruits were common and of many varieties, including plums, grapes, blackberries, dewberries, huckleberries, strawberries and a number of others.

At first there were three tribal governments—Cherokee, Creek-Seminole and Choctaw-Chickasaw and, after 1856, when the Chickasaw and Seminole tribes set up their own there were five. Each of these tribal governments was a miniature republic, with its executive, legislative and judicial departments. The people took great interest in their political affairs and the campaigns which preceded the election of tribal officials and counselors were hotly contested.

Trade and travel between the Indian Territory and the states to the eastward was largely by steamboats on the Arkansas and Red rivers. Small steamboats of light draft made regular runs on the Arkansas to Fort Gibson. Most of these came from Memphis or St. Louis, though occasionally one might hail from Louisville, Cincinnati or Pittsburgh and, in the early summer, when there was plenty of water in the river, big side-wheel steamers came up from lower Mississippi. Not so many steamboats ascended the Red River to the Indian Territory as there were on the Arkansas. However, when Red River had a good stage of water, steamboats came up as far as the mouth of the Kiamitia and, sometimes, even ascended to the mouth of the Washita. The arrival of a steamboat at the landing at or near one of the trading settlements, such as Skullaville, Webbers Falls, Fort Gibson or Doaksville, was always a great event in the life of the community.

The number of missions and schools increased and among the preachers and teachers and other mission workers were included a number of Indians whose education had been begun in the mission schools and had been continued or completed in eastern colleges and seminaries. The Cherokees had a Bible Society and a Temperance Society as early as 1845. The Choc-

taws raised money to send to the Irish famine sufferers, in 1847. The people of these tribes generally sent delegates or representatives to aid and assist the government commissioners who went to hold peace councils with the people of the wild tribes on the western plains. So it became evident that the people of these tribes were not only civilized themselves, but also that they were willing that the rest of the world should be benefited by their civilization.



1850-1860

No more Indian tribes were located in Indian Territory during this decade, but division was made between the Choctaws and Chickasaws in 1855, and between the Creeks and Seminoles in 1856, as here shown.

Upon the admission of Texas in 1845, that state decided to relinquish that part north of the 36° 30', which, by the terms of the Missouri Compromise, was understood to be free territory. This was accordingly done, though the formal transfer to and acceptance by the United States was not made until 1850. As this land was not included in New Mexico when it was organized in 1850, nor in Kansas when it was organized in 1854, but was left out of any state or territory, it came to be known as "No-Man's-Land," "The Neutral Strip" or "The Public Land Strip."

PART III

THE CIVIL WAR IN THE
INDIAN TERRITORY

CHAPTER I

THE BEGINNING OF THE WAR

The outbreak of the Civil War found the people of the five civilized tribes in a prosperous condition. Many if not most of them would have preferred to take no part in the conflict. Excepting those of the Seminole tribe, nearly all of them had been at peace with the government of the United States since 1815, while the Choctaw and Chickasaw tribes had never been at war with the white people since it was founded. In its geographical location, climate and products, the Indian Territory was closely bound to the southern states of the Union. Commercially it depended largely upon steamboat navigation on the Arkansas and Red rivers, both of which flowed in southeasterly courses toward the lower Mississippi. Of the many white men who had married and settled among the people of these tribes, the great majority were from the southern states. All of these tribes had moved from southern states and many of their people, being slave-owners at the time of their removal, brought their slaves with them to their new homes. Despite all this, however, when the question of slavery led to the outbreak of the Civil War between the states of the South and those of the North, which remained loyal to the Federal Union, most of the people of the five civilized tribes preferred to remain at peace and to take no part in the war.

The Federal garrisons at Forts Smith, Washita, Arbuckle and Cobb were withdrawn from the Territory, being finally joined in one expedition near the

present town of Minco, in Grady County, whence they were marched northward into Kansas under the command of Colonel William H. Emory. Meanwhile the authorities of the newly organized government of the Confederate States began negotiating with the different tribes to induce them to enter into treaties of friendship and alliance. It required much patient and tactful persuasion by Albert Pike, the Confederate commissioner, to induce the people of some of the tribes to agree, even after they knew that the Federal forces had left the Territory and that they had apparently been abandoned by the Federal Government. The Choctaw and Chickasaw tribes were easily persuaded to sign the new treaties, but among the other tribes there were many people who were opposed to taking any action which might lead them into the war. Part of the Creek people refused to have anything to do with the proposed alliance with the Confederate States. The authorities of the Cherokee Nation tried to maintain a neutral position for some months.

The Confederate forces in Arkansas seized Fort Smith and troops from Texas occupied Forts Washita, Arbuckle and Cobb as soon as those posts were abandoned by the Federal garrisons. All of the tribal agents of the Government were southern men and nearly all of them were active supporters of the secession movement. The newly appointed agents, who were to succeed them, did not dare to come to their stations. The payment of annuity funds which were due from the Federal Government were not made. It seemed, indeed, that the people of these tribes had been abandoned and forgotten by their "great father" at Washington.

The Confederate commissioner, Albert Pike, made a treaty with one party or faction of the Creek Nation

but the other, under the leadership of an old chief named Opothleyahola, not only refused to be bound by the treaty but prepared to leave the Territory and take refuge in Kansas, late in the autumn of 1861. Confederate forces under the command of Colonels Douglas H. Cooper and James M. McIntosh pursued and attacked the fugitives, who were not only poorly armed but also incumbered with their families and movable property. After being driven out of the Territory in defeat, with the loss of much of their belongings, the fleeing loyalist Indians finished their journey in a winter storm in which many perished and they arrived in Kansas in a destitute condition.

After entering into treaties with the Confederate States, each of the five civilized tribes raised and organized troops for the Confederate military service.

Reference Works: "Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies, Series I, Volumes III and VIII.

"Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs," 1861.

CHAPTER II

FEDERAL INVASIONS AND THE END OF THE WAR, 1862-5

During the first six months of 1862, the Indian Territory saw but little of the war, though Confederate troops were stationed at Fort Gibson, Fort Washita and elsewhere. In the middle of the summer of that year, however, there was an invasion of Federal forces into the Cherokee Nation from Kansas, under the command of Colonel William Weer. It advanced far enough to send scouting parties to Tahlequah and Fort Gibson but, because of the lack of proper discipline among some of the leading officers of the command, it soon retreated northward into Kansas. Many of the Cherokee people declared their adherence to the Union at this time and three regiments of Indians (Cherokees, Creeks and Seminoles) were organized for the Federal service.

In October, 1862, occurred the second Federal invasion of the Cherokee Nation. General James G. Blunt was in command of the Federal forces. Fort Gibson was again abandoned by the Confederate forces and was occupied by the Federal troops. It continued to be the headquarters for the Union troops in the Indian Territory from that time on until the end of the war. Most of the Confederate forces in the Indian Territory were stationed in the Chickasaw and Choctaw nations thereafter, though there were frequent raids northward into the Creek and Cherokee nations. Probably the most important battle fought in the Indian Territory during the Civil War was that

of Elk Creek, or Honey Springs, near the present town of Oktaha, in the southern part of Muskogee County, in July, 1863, between the Union troops under the command of General Blunt and the Confederate forces under the command of General William Steele and General Douglas H. Cooper. It resulted in a victory for the Union forces, the Confederate troops retreating southward across the Canadian River.

The war was bitterly partisan. Raiding parties from both sides scoured the country in the Cherokee and Creek nations, destroying the property and driving off the stock of all who were on the opposite side, so that the whole country was laid waste. The families of those who sided with the Confederate States had to seek refuge in the southern part of the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations, while the families of those who sided with the Union were mostly gathered in and around Fort Gibson and the southern part of Kansas. Living in idleness, in overcrowded camps, poorly clothed, poorly housed and exposed to the ravages of disease, there were many deaths among the people on both sides. There were no more battles of importance in the Territory during the Civil War, though there were numerous skirmishes and small fights between raiding parties. In September, 1864, a Confederate force of 2,000 men under Generals Stand Watie and Richard M. Gano, captured a Federal supply train of 325 wagons, at Cabin Creek, in the north-eastern part of Mayes County, near the town of Pensacola. During the last six months of the Civil War, there was practically no campaigning done in the Indian Territory. When the war ended, General Cooper, who was in command of all the Confederate troops in the Territory, surrendered the white troops—those of the regiments from Texas and the other states—

but the Indians reserved the right to do their own surrendering. The Cherokee and Choctaw troops in the Confederate service were surrendered in June, 1865, and the Chickasaw troops were not surrendered until July 14th—more than three months after the surrender of General Lee's army.

The Civil War was one in which the Indians were not directly concerned and in which but few of them would have taken part had they not been subject to much persuasion. It was disastrous to them in every way. Most of their property was destroyed and many of them lost their lives and, in the end, much of their land was also taken from them. Of course, all of their slaves were set free, but that was a small matter compared with the other losses sustained and with the hardships which they endured.

Reference Works: "Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies," Series I, Volumes VIII, XIII, XXII, XXXIV, XLI, XLVIII, LIII.

"Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs," 1862, 1863, 1864, 1865.

"The Yankee Conscript; or, Eighteen Months in Dixie," by George Adams Fisher; Philadelphia, 1864.

"Memoirs of the Rebellion on the Border, 1863," by Wiley Britton; Chicago, 1882.



1860-1867

The Leased District shown on Plate No. 3 was, by the treaty of April 28, 1866, ceded to the United States. By treaty of October 18, 1865, the United States ceded all lands in the present state of Oklahoma west of the 98th meridian and south of the Cimarron River, including the Public Land Strip, to the Comanches and Kiowas. It will be noted that this treaty antedated the Choctaw-Chickasaw treaty of 1866. By treaty of October 21, 1867, the Kiowas and Comanches relinquished to the United States all lands described in the treaty of October 18, 1866, except that portion shown on this map. It will be further noted that the lands ceded to the Comanches and Kiowas October 18, 1865, included part of the lands of the Seminoles and Creeks as well as a part of the Cherokee Outlet.

PART IV

RECONSTRUCTION AND THE SETTLEMENT
OF MORE TRIBES IN THE INDIAN
TERRITORY

CHAPTER I

RECONSTRUCTION AND TRIBE SETTLEMENT

The end of the war found the people of the five civilized tribes in a pitiable plight. Throughout the Cherokee and Creek nations, most of the homes of the people had been destroyed by the partisans of the opposing factions. In many respects the struggle resembled a personal feud or quarrel. In the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations there had not been so much property destroyed but the people of those tribes were made poor because many of the people from the other tribes sought and found a refuge there and they had to be fed and clothed. The Choctaw and Chickasaw people had taken sides with the seceding states almost to a man, so they had no trouble among themselves to distract them. In the Cherokee, Creek and Seminole nations, however, the people had divided, a part of them adhering to the Union while many of them supported the alliance with the Confederate States. Each of these three tribes therefore had to adjust their domestic differences as well as to renew their treaties with the Federal Government.

The first peace council after the end of the war was held at Fort Smith, Arkansas, in September, 1865. A number of tribes were represented. The commissioners of the Government required that certain conditions should be accepted and agreed to by each of the five civilized tribes. These were as follows: (1) That surplus or unused lands of each of the several reservations should be opened for the settlement of other tribes of Indians, from Kansas or elsewhere; (2) that the negroes who had been slaves of the Indians should

be given full tribal rights and citizenship; (3) that rights-of-way for the construction of two railroads across the Territory—one from north to south and the other from east to west—should be granted; (4) that Congress should have power to establish a territorial government, with an inter-tribal legislative council. To each of these requirements many of the Indians were bitterly opposed. The hostility between the two factions of the Cherokee Nation was so marked that it, too, tended to defeat the purpose of the peace council, which finally adjourned to meet in Washington, D. C., in the spring of 1866.

When negotiations were renewed at Washington, the people of the rival factions in the Creek and Seminole nations buried their differences and those tribes entered into new treaties which complied with all of the demands and conditions of the Government commissioners. The former slaves were not only accorded full tribal citizenship but also a proportionate interest in all lands and tribal funds. The reservations of both tribes were greatly reduced in size by the cession of large areas in the central and western parts of the Territory. The Choctaw and Chickasaw nations opposed tribal citizenship for the former negro slaves and finally succeeded in limiting the land interest to the negroes to forty acres each, with no share in the tribal funds. The Cherokees, divided by the bitter hostility of the two factions, were very slow to reach an agreement with the Government commissioners but, finally, all of the five tribes had been induced to enter into new treaties. The Choctaw and Chickasaw tribes, holding their reservation jointly, united in one treaty with the Government.

It was during one of the discussions between the delegates from these Indian tribes and the Govern-

ment commissioners that the name of Oklahoma was first suggested for the name of the state which now bears it. While the proposed territorial form of government for the Indian Territory was being discussed, one of the Government commissioners asked: "What would you call your territory?" Reverend Allen Wright, a full-blood Choctaw Indian, who had been educated in New York and who was a Presbyterian minister, instantly responded "Oklahoma," much to the surprise and consternation of some of the delegates from other tribes, who wished to deliberate before answering the question. In the Choctaw language, "Okla" means people and "humma" or "homa" means red; hence the signification of the word thus compounded is "Red People." It was in accordance with this suggestion that the treaty which the delegates from the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations signed with the Government commissioners referred to the proposed territorial organization as "the Territory of Oklahoma." In due time the name thus suggested became a household word.

During the ten years following the end of the Civil War, the people of the five civilized tribes were largely engaged in re-establishing themselves and recovering from the effects and losses which they had suffered as the result of the war. The Missouri, Kansas & Texas Railway was built across the Territory, from the Kansas line on the north to the Red River on the south, in 1871-72-73, and the Atlantic & Pacific (now the Frisco) built its line from the Missouri line to a junction with the Missouri, Kansas & Texas line, at Vinita.

Reference Works: "Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs," 1865-75.

"The Undeveloped West," by J. H. Beadle; Cincinnati, 1873.

CHAPTER II

OTHER TRIBES IN THE TERRITORY

During the Civil War, most of the wild tribes of the Great Plains, which had never been confined to reservations, were engaged in war against the white people who were traveling overland to the Rocky Mountains and to the Pacific Coast. In the autumn of 1865, the chiefs and head men of the Cheyenne, Arapaho, Comanche, Kiowa and Plains Apache tribes met the Government peace commissioners in council at Wichita, Kansas, where new treaties were negotiated and signed. The next year many of the Indians of these tribes were on the warpath again and the hostilities continued for more than a year, when another peace council was held at Medicine Lodge, Kansas, in the autumn of 1867. New treaties were negotiated and new reservations were assigned to these tribes in the Indian Territory. But the Indians were greatly dissatisfied because railroad lines were being built across the Great Plains and because the buffalo herds were being slaughtered by white hunters, so many of them went out on the warpath again in 1868. Thus far, the frontier settlements and overland trails in Kansas, Nebraska and Texas had suffered most from Indian raids. Late in the fall of 1868, it was decided to carry on a winter campaign against the Indians.

Most of the hostile Indians had gathered for the winter in the wooded valleys of the western part of the Indian Territory. An expedition was organized under Generals Sheridan and Custer, at Fort Dodge,

in the western part of Kansas, to invade the Indian Territory at a season when the Indians felt secure from molestation or attack. Marching southward in the latter part of November, the site for a new military post, known as Camp Supply, was selected at the junction of Beaver and Wolf creeks, in Woodward County. Although the snow was deep and the weather was bitterly cold, General Custer marched with his regiment, the Seventh Cavalry, from Camp Supply southward across the Canadian to the valley of the Washita, where he found and attacked the village of Black Kettle and his band of Cheyenne people. This chief and many of his followers were killed, the village was destroyed and its herds of ponies were slaughtered. Other Indian villages near at hand became alarmed, pulled down their lodges and fled. General Custer and his men returned in triumph to Camp Supply, where the expedition was reorganized. It then returned to the valley of the Washita, marching down as far as Fort Cobb, in Caddo County, where it encamped for several weeks. It was then moved over to the valley of Medicine Bluff Creek, near the eastern extremity of the Wichita range of mountains, in Comanche County, where the site of Fort Sill was selected.

From Fort Sill, General Custer with his command, consisting of his own regiment and a regiment of Kansas volunteers, marched westward through the counties of Comanche, Kiowa and Greer and on into the Texas Panhandle to the border of the Staked Plain. Finally, the hostile Cheyennes were overtaken, their village was captured and they were forced to come back with the troops. This was the beginning of the end of the old order, wherein every tribe was free to roam at will on the Great Plains. The Indians were

told that they must not leave their reservations except with the permission of their tribal agent. For a year or more the Cheyenne and Arapaho Agency was maintained at Camp Supply. Then, in the spring of 1870, it was established at the place which has long been known as Darlington, in Canadian County.

For four or five years following, there was much trouble with the Indians of all of these tribes. Raiding parties of warriors would leave the reservation without permission, to carry terror to the frontier settlements, especially in Texas and Kansas. Finally, in 1874, angered by the continued slaughter of buffalo by white hunters, many of them went out on the last general war against the white people. As in the previous war, six years before, a winter campaign was waged against them and, in the end, they were compelled to beg for peace. The last one to surrender was Quanah, the Comanche chief, who gave himself up at Fort Sill, in June, 1875.

Immediately after the new treaties with the five civilized tribes were ratified, efforts were made to induce some of the tribes which had long been settled on reservations in Kansas to accept new reservations in the Indian Territory and remove thither. Among the first to agree to move to the Indian Territory were the main bodies of the Delaware and Shawnee tribes, both of which purchased the right to settle in the Cherokee Nation, of which they became citizens. Reservations were assigned to the absentee Shawnees and Pottawatomies on the lands which had been ceded by the Seminoles, and to the Sac and Fox tribes on lands which had been ceded by the Creeks. Reservations were set aside for the Osages, Kaws and Pawnees in the Cherokee Outlet and all of these tribes were removed to the Indian Territory during this period.

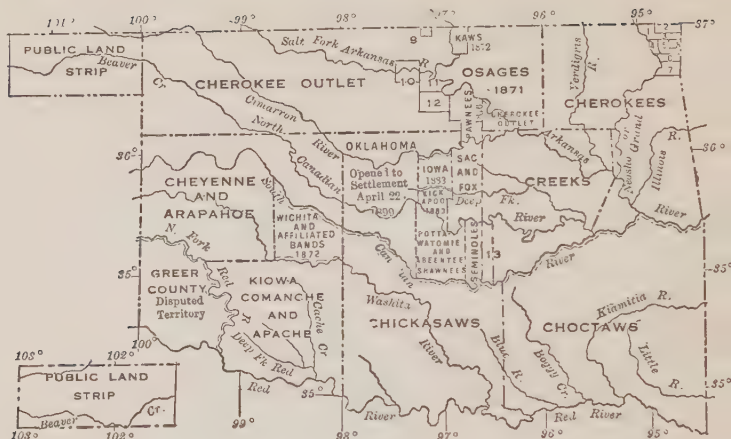
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"A Quaker Among the Indians," by Thomas C. Battey; Boston, Lee & Shepard.

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"Our Red Brothers," by Lawrie Tatum; Philadelphia, John C. Winston Company, 1899.



1867-1890

Lands shown in upper right hand corner were in 1867 assigned as follows: 1 and 3 to the Peorias, Kaskaskias, Pinkishaws and Weas; 4 to the Ottawas; 6 to the Wyandots; 2, 5 and 7 respectively to Quawpaws, Shawnees and Senecas. By agreement October 21, 1867, the Apaches were confederated with Comanches and Kiowas and were to occupy the same reservation.

By an executive order of August 10, 1869, the Cheyennes and Arapahoes were granted the lands as shown on this plate in lieu of lands designated by treaty of Medicine Lodge of October 28, 1867.

The Osage reservation was set apart by executive order March 27, 1871, and was purchased from the Cherokees as being a part of their reservation west of the 98th meridian. This reserve also included the Kaw reservation as shown on this plate.

The Absentee Shawnees were provided a home on the Pottawatomie reservation by Act of Congress May 23, 1872.

Some of the Seminoles having settled east of the east line of their reservation, as defined by treaty made in 1866, a purchase of an additional 175,000 acres was made for them from the Creeks in 1873. This purchase is designated on this plate by the number 13.

No. 8 shows land ceded for Modoc occupancy, 1874.

No. 9 shows 13½ sections set apart for Chillico Indian Industrial School, 1884.

No. 10 Nez Perce reservation from 1878 to 1884. Tonkawas were placed on this reservation, 1884.

No. 11 Poncas located here, 1881.

No. 12 Otoes and Missouriias located here, 1881.

CHAPTER III

THE CHISHOLM TRAIL AND THE OVER- LAND CATTLE TRADE

During the Civil War the state of Texas became separated from the rest of the Confederate States when the Federal forces occupied Arkansas, Louisiana and the Indian Territory. Texas, which was as yet but sparsely peopled, was largely given over to the range cattle industry. When it became separated from the other states of the Confederacy by the Federal lines of occupation, it had no market for its surplus stock, so the herds of cattle had greatly increased by the time the war was ended. Cattle were scarce and high in price in the North and East, while in Texas they were very plentiful and cheap. Efforts were made to drive Texas cattle through the Indian Territory to Missouri, Illinois and other western states. Always such ventures ended in loss. All might go well until the herds had arrived in Kansas or Missouri, when it was noticed that the native cattle of those states immediately contracted a strange disease, which was called Texas fever, and which was very destructive among the native cattle. For this reason, the farmers along the way became very much opposed to the passage of the herds from Texas through the country and the drovers were mobbed and their herds were stampeded and lost.

An Illinois cattle feeder, by the name of Joseph G. McCoy, who had had considerable experience and loss in attempting to take Texas cattle to his home state to be fattened for market, conceived the idea of driv-

ing cattle slowly northward from the ranges in the central and western portions of Texas to a shipping point on the Kansas Pacific Railway in Kansas. He believed that by slowly grazing the cattle northward during the season that the grass was growing, they would arrive at the shipping point in good condition and that they might thus be shipped to the packing houses at Chicago. In order to avoid trouble with the settlers, it was his plan to have the moving herds keep well to the westward of the settlements. After much effort, he finally succeeded in persuading some of the railway managers to back the enterprise. He personally visited the Texas cattle ranges and urged the ranchmen to make an experimental drive. This first drive was made in the spring and summer of 1867.

In the spring of 1865, Jesse Chisholm, a mixed-blood Cherokee trader who had long been engaged in trade with the Comanches, Kiowas and other Indians of the Plains and who had been a refugee in Kansas during the Civil War, started southward from Wichita, Kansas, toward the old Indian agency at Fort Cobb, on the Washita River, with several loads of goods. In doing so, he merely followed the faint traces of the trail which had been made nearly four years before by the retreating Federal troops after they had abandoned the military posts in the Indian Territory at the outbreak of the war. The trail which was thus followed was always afterward known as the Chisholm Trail. The line of this old trail is followed very closely by the Rock Island Railway from Wichita to El Reno. In due time it became the road over which much freighting was done and was followed by the mail and passenger stages to Darlington, Fort Reno, Anadarko and Fort Sill.

When the first drive of Texas cattle was made, under

the direction of Mr. McCoy, to Abilene, Kansas, in 1867, the Chisholm Trail was followed from a point in Kingfisher County a few miles south of the Cimarron River to the crossing of the Arkansas River, at Wichita, Kansas. Thenceforth, the name of the Chisholm Trail was extended to include the route followed by the herds from Texas, from the Red River crossing clear through to the end of the drive at Abilene, Kansas. Afterward, when the shipping points were located farther west and new routes were selected, each was still called the "Chisum" Trail, in the language of the drovers.

During the first season (1867), 35,000 head of cattle were driven northward across the Indian Territory from the ranges of Texas to the shipping point at Abilene, Kansas. The next year the season's drive was 75,000 head; in 1869, the number was doubled, as it was again in 1870. After 1871, the number of cattle driven northward to the shipping points in Kansas averaged over 500,000 each year.

Reference Works: "Historic Sketches of the Cattle Trade in the West and Southwest," by Joseph G. McCoy, 1874.

"Reed Anthony, Cowman," by Andy Adams; New York, Houghton, Mifflin and Company, 1907.

"Dodge City, the Cowboy Capital," by Robert M. Wright; Dodge City, Kansas, published by the Author, 1913.

CHAPTER IV

THE CATTLE RANCHMEN IN OKLAHOMA

The disappearance of the buffalo herds, the fear of which had caused the last Indian war in western Oklahoma, became a reality within three years after that war had ended. Within a short time after the end of that war, cattlemen from Kansas and Texas began to establish ranches in the central part of the Territory, which had not been assigned to any Indian tribe as a reservation, and in the unoccupied portions of the Cherokee Outlet. Within the five years between 1875 and 1880, practically all of the vacant lands in the western half of the Territory were occupied by cattle ranges. These ranges were stocked with herds of half-wild cattle from Texas. This breed, which was of Spanish-Mexican origin, was very different from the cattle which are kept on the farms of Oklahoma now. They were gaunt and thin, had long horns and were of several colors—black, white, fawn, brindled and spotted.

Each ranch had its range, which generally overlapped the borders of the neighboring ranges. The cattle ran at large as none of the ranges were fenced. It naturally followed that those of different herds were scattered and intermingled. In order that each ranchman might be enabled to identify his own stock each animal was branded with a red-hot branding iron, each ranch having its own brand or brands by means of which every animal might be readily recognized and identified. Two or three times each year, all of the ranches in a given district united in what was known

as a "round-up," wherein all of the cattle were driven together or "rounded-up," and divided according to brands, each herd being driven to its home range. At such times, the calves were branded, the ownership of each being determined by the brand of its mother.

Each ranch had its ranch buildings, which were generally known as "headquarters." These buildings were built of logs or rough lumber, generally, though some of them had walls of stone and, in the western part of the Territory, occasionally some of them had walls of sod or turf. Many, if not most of them, had earth-covered roofs and most of them had earthen floors. The buildings of each ranch generally included the bunk-house, in which the employes slept, the cook-shack, where they ate their food, a stable and possibly several sheds, with a corral, or stock-pen. On some of the larger ranches there might also be rough but comfortable cottages, wherein the superintendent and foreman made their homes, having their families with them.

Each ranch had its foreman and, if the owner was not present, a superintendent also. The number of other employes depended upon the size of the range and the number of cattle belonging to it. There was always a cook, generally a horse-wrangler and, in the case of the larger ranches, one or two other special employes. Most of the men were range riders and were known as cowboys or "cattle punchers." As a class, they were picturesque in dress and appearance. Many of them were from the eastern states and not a few of them were men of education and refinement. They were generous to a fault and were free and easy in their treatment to one another. Brave men themselves, they hated a coward and despised meanness in any form. Like the half-wild herds that they rounded

up, they have disappeared from Oklahoma, though a few of them still survive as respected citizens.

In the spring of 1881, the cattle ranchmen of the Cherokee Outlet met just across the border, at Caldwell, Kansas, and organized the Cherokee Strip Live Stock Association. This organization became very prominent and wielded great influence in the affairs of the Indian Territory from that time on until the opening of the Oklahoma country to white settlement. It was generally believed to be opposed to the opening of any part of the Territory to homestead settlement. The headquarters and general offices of this association were at Caldwell, Kansas. During the time that the cattle ranch industry was supreme in Western Oklahoma, Caldwell was the home of many ranch owners and most of their surplus stock was shipped to market from that point.

Reference Works: "Ranch Notes," by Reginald Aldridge; London, England, Longmans, Green & Company, 1884.

"Midnight and Noonday; or, The Incidental History of Southern Kansas and the Indian Territory," by G. D. Freeman; Caldwell, Kansas, published by the author, 1892.

"Oklahoma," by A. P. Jackson and E. C. Cole; Kansas City, Ramsey, Millett & Hudson, 1885.

"The Oklahoma Scout," by Theodore Baughman; Chicago, Homewood Publishing Company.

PART V

THE STRUGGLE FOR
SETTLEMENT

CHAPTER I

THE UNASSIGNED LANDS AND THE OKLAHOMA "COLONIES"

As the various tribes from Kansas, Nebraska and Colorado were assigned to reservations in the Indian Territory, all of the lands were thus set aside except a district in the central part of the Territory, which included the larger parts of the present counties of Canadian, Cleveland, Kingfisher, Logan, Oklahoma and Payne. This tract, which embraced about 3,000,000 acres, was commonly called the Unassigned Lands, or the Unassigned District. In 1876, several cattle ranches were established on these lands and the whole district was occupied by stock ranges within a year or two afterward.

Although the Atlantic & Pacific Railway Company had built its line only to Vinita, it had been projected and incorporated to build westward to New Mexico and California. Other railways which had been built westward to the Rocky Mountains had received generous grants of land from the Government. No such grant was made for the building of the proposed line across the Indian Territory, for the reason that the lands had nearly all been assigned as reservations for various tribes of Indians. Repeated efforts were made to induce Congress to make a grant of lands in the Indian Territory to this company but each time the movement met with defeat. Finally, early in 1879, some of the railway attorneys at Washington announced that they had discovered that the lands of the Unassigned District were government lands and

were therefore subject to the homestead laws and open to settlement. Immediately there was a flurry of excitement and bands of men were organized at various points on the border of the Indian Territory for the purpose of making settlements in the Unassigned District. Many people entered the Territory but all were removed by detachments of the Regular Army which had been ordered to prevent such settlements.



CAPT. DAVID L. PAYNE

Most of the intruders soon became discouraged and gave up hope of settling in the Territory. Some of them believed that they had a perfect right to settle there, as the Government owned the land and had not assigned it to any Indian tribe. Other companies or bands of men, commonly called "colonies," were organized to settle on the forbidden lands, which, from that time (1879) on, were always spoken of as "the Oklahoma country." Within a few months Captain David L. Payne became recognized as the leader of the movement to force the opening of the Oklahoma country to

settlement under the homestead laws, and he continued to lead the movement until his death, more than five years later. He was constantly engaged in organizing new "colonies" and leading them into the forbidden country. He was arrested and expelled repeatedly but each time he reorganized his followers and prepared to invade the Oklahoma country again. As fast as part of his followers became discouraged and quit the movement, others were induced to take their places and thus the movement was continued until, at the time of his death, in November, 1884, he was still organizing and preparing for another peaceful invasion of the forbidden country.

Within a few days after the death of Captain Payne, a bill was introduced into Congress for the purpose of authorizing the opening of the Oklahoma country to settlement under the homestead laws. Captain Payne had always believed that the influence of the cattle ranch interests was used against the proposed opening of the Oklahoma country to settlement. After his death, the leadership of the Oklahoma "boomers," as the followers of Payne were called, was assumed by William L. Couch, who had long been one of Payne's most devoted followers, but, after the year 1884, the struggle was largely transferred to the halls of Congress.

Reference Works: "Oklahoma," by A. P. Jackson and E. C. Cole; Kansas City, Ramsey, Millett & Hudson, 1885.

"The Oklahoma Scout," by Theodore Baughman; Chicago, Homewood Publishing Company, 1885.

CHAPTER II

GREER COUNTY, NO-MAN'S-LAND AND THE OPENING

A tract of land which was bounded on the north and east by the North Fork of the Red River, on the south by Red River proper, and on the west by the 100th meridian of longitude had long been in dispute between the state of Texas and the United States. As early as 1860, this tract had been designated as a county by the legislature of Texas and was named Greer County in honor of a former lieutenant governor of that state. As long as it remained unsettled the dispute between the state and federal government as to its ownership was not pressed by either side. The first cattle ranches were established in Greer County, in 1881, and, within the next four years, a great many settlers located there. Nearly all of these were from Texas and the lands upon which they settled were homesteaded or taken up under the laws of that state. In 1885, the settlers were notified by officers of the United States that they were trespassing and that they should remove. Few of the settlers paid any attention to the warning however, and, several years later, the district was organized as a county of the state of Texas. Eventually, the dispute was referred to the United States Supreme Court, which rendered a decision in 1895, rejecting the claims of the state of Texas, after which Greer County was attached to the Territory of Oklahoma.

The No-Man's-Land tract, which was bounded on the north by Colorado and Kansas, on the east by the

Cherokee Outlet, on the south by Texas and on the west by New Mexico, had never been attached to or included in the limits of any state or territory. A few stock ranches were established in the western part of this tract as early as 1871. Others were established during the course of the next ten years, until most of its area was occupied by cattle ranges. In 1885, many settlers went into western Kansas and eastern Colorado and some of these found their way into the No-Man's-Land country. Several small towns or villages were established. Because that part of the country was not included in any state or territory, there were neither courts nor laws. Lawlessness was all too common in consequence. Finally the people determined to have some laws of their own, if Congress would not provide them with laws, and an organized government. They therefore organized the Territory of Cimarron, the capital of which was at Beaver City. A full set of territorial officers, legislative, executive and judicial, was selected and a delegate was sent to Washington to represent the new territory in Congress. A bill was introduced in Congress for the purpose of formally organizing the Territory of Cimarron but it failed to pass.

In the mean time, during the years 1885, 1886, 1887 and 1888, the question of the proposed opening of the Oklahoma country to homestead settlement occupied a great deal of time and attention in Congress. During the winter of 1888-89 a very determined effort was made to secure the passage of the Oklahoma bill through Congress. Many of the people who had long been interested in the movement were in Washington. The Indians of the five civilized tribes, who were opposed to the opening of any part of the territory to white settlement, had delegations in Washington for

the purpose of opposing the passage of the bill. It also met with opposition from other sources. For a time it seemed doomed to defeat. Finally, the Oklahoma bill was attached as a "rider" (i. e., an amendment) to the appropriation bill for the Indian affairs department and thus it was forced through in spite of opposition. Under the terms of this act, the Oklahoma country was to be thrown open to settlement under the homestead laws under rules and regulations to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Interior. It was also provided that the President of the United States should set the date of the proposed opening in a proclamation which was to be issued thirty days in advance. President Benjamin Harrison issued such a proclamation, setting the twenty-second day of April, 1889, as the date.

Immediately after the publication of this proclamation, people began to gather along the border of the Oklahoma country, to await the hour when they should be permitted to enter and choose their homestead claims. Most of those who came thus early traveled thither in wagons and lived in camp. As the appointed day drew nearer, the throngs around the border increased. During the last day or two the one railway line that traversed the district which was to be opened to settlement (the Santa Fe, which had been built only two or three years before) brought thousands of people to the border, from Kansas on the north and from Texas on the south. As the noon hour approached, when the assembled multitude might sweep across into the hitherto forbidden land, the eager, expectant people counted the moments. When the guarding soldiers gave the signal, a mighty shout arose and then the race began. In all the annals of human migrations and settlements, the like of that scene had never

been witnessed before. Nightfall, a few hours later, found the land occupied by thousands of people, while a score of cities and towns were marked by hundreds of tents.

The season was well advanced when the homesteaders took possession of their claims but many, if not most of them, had a few acres turned with a breaking plow and planted corn, vegetables, melons and other crops on the newly turned sod. Wooden buildings soon began to replace the tents in the cities and towns. The largest towns were Guthrie, Oklahoma City and Kingfisher. Government land officers were located at Guthrie and Kingfisher.

Reference Work: "Illustrated History of Oklahoma," by Marion Tuttle Rock; Topeka, Kansas, C. B. Hamilton & Son, publishers, 1890.

CHAPTER III

NEED OF LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

The Organic Act.—When the settlers recovered from the excitement of the race for claims and the erection of tents and shanties, they began to realize that conditions were far from satisfactory. The law under which the country had been opened to settlement had not made any provisions for the organization or development of a system of local self-government. A company of troops from the United States army at each of the larger towns and the presence of numerous deputy United States marshals were the only agencies for the preservation of order. The people, as a rule, were orderly and law-abiding, so that comparatively little trouble was experienced on that score. However, there were no courts, so it was impossible to settle disputes and misunderstandings concerning business matters except by arbitration.

The absence of organized government was keenly felt and soon there were movements for the organization of provisional local or municipal governments in several of the larger towns. So elections were held and then there were mayors and chiefs of police and city councils. While these officials lacked the sanction and authority of statute law, they helped to preserve order and to prevent a state of lawlessness.

During the first summer a movement was started at Guthrie (which was the largest town in the Oklahoma country) for the purpose of organizing a provisional territorial government. This was opposed in other parts of the newly settled country. However,

a convention was called to meet at Guthrie, July 17, 1889, to plan the organization of a territorial government. Delegates were elected by both factions and, when the convention met, it wrangled for three days and then adjourned to meet again a month later. A majority of the delegates in attendance at both sessions was favorable to the proposed territorial government but a strong minority was opposed to it. As the success of the movement was hopeless unless it commanded the support of a large majority of the people, the convention at its adjourned session contented itself by adopting a memorial to Congress, petitioning for early relief in the form of an organic act for the Territory. However, Congress did not reconvene until December following and, even then, it seemed to be in no haste to grant the petition. Indeed, it was not until five months later that the organic act was finally passed and approved.

The organic act was similar to the laws under which all other organized territories of the United States had been formed and governed until such time as they were ready for admission into the Union as states. Indeed, many of its provisions were similar to those of the various state constitutions. It provided for the division of the powers of government into three branches, namely, executive, legislative, and judicial. The chief executive of the Territory was to be a governor, who was to be appointed by the President of the United States. The President was also to appoint the secretary of the Territory and the three members of the Territorial Supreme Court, each of whom was also to serve as a judge of the district court. The legislative body was to consist of a Council of thirteen members and a House of Representatives of twenty-six members, all of whom were to be chosen at popular elec-

tions to serve for a term of two years. The statute laws of Nebraska were adopted as the laws of Oklahoma Territory until the same should be modified, amended or superseded by act of the Territorial Legislative Assembly. It was under these laws of Nebraska that the various county, city and township organizations were effected.

Reference Work: "Illustrated History of Oklahoma," by Marion Tuttle Rock; Topeka, Kansas, C. B. Hamilton & Son, publishers, 1890.

CHAPTER IV

PIONEER DAYS IN OKLAHOMA

The day of the race into the different districts witnessed many, many interesting incidents, some humorous and some pathetic. Here and there a well-bred racer might be seen losing ground to a hog-backed



HOMESTEAD IN CHEROKEE STRIP, 1894

cow pony: conveyances of all kinds were racing for homes. Wagons were broken and overturned, and horses killed; prairie fires were started in some places, which added to the confusion. The next day presented a moving picture; cities of tents, eating houses, grocery stores and places of amusement, had sprung up as if by magic overnight. Covered wagons here and there marked the location of the claim holders.

Some of these had brought all of their earthly possessions in one load and had come to stay. Hard times necessarily followed and then some wage earner of the family was forced to go back into the "State" and earn a "grub-stake" for the family. Sod and picket houses were common. The bill of fare usually consisted of bread, pork, beans, and molasses. In the early days trading points were sometimes sixty miles away and water had to be hauled long distances. However, small stores soon found their way to these remote districts and wells were dug. Many of the early schoolhouses, which were also used for church services, were made with sod walls and a dirt roof. Where there was timber the walls were constructed of logs set endwise into the ground.

Each little community started its public school, which became a sort of a social center through its Sunday church and educational gatherings known as the "literary." And so we see the gradual change going on from the sod shack to modern homes, from the frugal fare of the pioneer to overflowing tables of the Oklahoma farmer, from the schoolhouse with the sod walls and its earthen floor, rude benches and grasshopper stove to the up-to-date consolidated building.

Search Topics: Oklahoma a Widely Advertised Country.
Why?

Description of a Race or Drawing.

Pioneer Home, School House, Church, Meal.

Biography of Payne.

Boomers in Oklahoma.

PART VI

THE TWO TERRITORIES

CHAPTER I

ORGANIZATION OF OKLAHOMA TERRITORY

The Organic Act which provided for the organization and government of Oklahoma divided the old Indian Territory in two parts. All that part which was situated west of the reservations of the five civilized tribes was to be included within the bounds of the Territory of Oklahoma. The reservations of the five civilized tribes, with the small reservations of the tribes located on the Missouri border, in the northeast, were thenceforth known as the Indian Territory. In addition to the Unassigned Lands, which had been thrown open to settlement the year before, Oklahoma Territory included the Osage, Pawnee, Kaw, Otoe-Missouri, Sac and Fox, Iowa, Kickapoo, Pottawatomie-Shawnee, Wichita-Caddo, Comanche-Kiowa, Cheyenne-Arapaho and Tonkawa Indian reservations, the Cherokee Outlet and the No-Man's-Land tract. The lands of the last mentioned tract were thrown open to settlement by homestead by the Organic Act. There were to be six counties formed from the Unassigned Lands and the No-Man's-Land tract was to be a county. The governor was authorized to apportion the members of the Legislature among the several counties and was also empowered to appoint such county officers as were necessary. Sections sixteen and thirty-six of each township were reserved for the benefit of the public schools. Provision was made for the reservation of public roads on all section lines. Guthrie was designated as the temporary capital.

George W. Steele, of Indiana, was appointed by

President Harrison as the first governor of Oklahoma. He arrived at Guthrie, May 23, 1890. On July 8, he issued a call for the election of members of the Territorial Legislative Assembly to be held August 5. The members of the Assembly convened and organized at Guthrie, August 27. Although there was much for the Assembly to do, the greater part of its five months' session was wasted in wrangling over the location of the capital. A bill was passed by both houses of the Assembly for the location of the capital at Oklahoma City but it was vetoed by Governor Steele. Later, another bill was passed, locating the capital at Kingfisher but it, too, was vetoed. Thus far, Oklahoma City interests controlled the situation. Finally, the partisans of Guthrie secured control by entering into an agreement for the location of the University (at Norman), the Agricultural and Mechanical College (at Stillwater) and the Normal School (at Edmond).

Shortly after the settlement of the Oklahoma country three Government commissioners began to negotiate with various tribes for the allotment of lands in severalty and for the opening of the surplus lands of each reservation to settlement under the homestead laws. The first of reservations to be thus thrown open to settlement were those of the Iowa, Pottawatomie, Shawnee and Sac and Fox tribes, in the eastern part of the new territory. From the lands thus opened to settlement, September 22, 1891, two new counties were formed and respectively designated as "A" and "B" and afterward named Lincoln and Pottawatomie. The Rock Island Railway Company constructed its line southward from Caldwell, on the Kansas border, toward the Red River at this time.

David A. Harvey, of Oklahoma City, was elected as

the first delegate to Congress from Oklahoma, in November, 1890. Governor Steele resigned his office in October, 1891, and the vacancy thus created was filled by the appointment of Chief Justice Abraham J. Seay, of the Territorial Supreme Court.

Search Topics: How were the first seven counties designated until they were named and how were they named?

How many Indian tribes were there in Oklahoma after the two territories were separated? How many in the Indian Territory?



TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS



WM. C. RENFROW



GEO. W. STEELE



C. M. BARNES



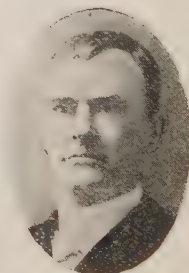
A. J. SEAY



WM. M. JENKINS



FRANK FRANTZ



I. B. FERGUSON

CHAPTER II

DEVELOPMENT OF THE TWO TERRITORIES

The same act of Congress which had made possible the settlement of the Oklahoma country also provided for the establishment of a Federal court for the Indian Territory. Before that time all Federal court cases from the Indian Territory had been taken to Fort Smith (Arkansas), Paris (Texas), or Wichita (Kansas) for trial. The number of Federal judges in the Indian Territory was increased to three, then to four and finally to eight.

In 1893, Congress provided for a permanent commission to treat with the people of the five civilized tribes for the purpose of inducing them to abandon their tribal governments, accept allotments of land in severalty and become citizens of the United States. This commission, which was commonly called the Dawes Commission (former United States Senator Henry L. Dawes being its chairman), was a prominent factor in the Indian Territory from that time on until the Indian Territory was merged into the state of Oklahoma. The Dawes Commission negotiated an agreement with the representatives of the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations which was signed at Atoka, April 23, 1897. This document, which became popularly known as "the Atoka Agreement," was the beginning of the end of tribal relations for the Choctaw and Chickasaw people. In June, 1898, Congress passed an act (commonly known as "the Curtis Act"), which made some sweeping changes in the Indian Territory. The tribal courts were abolished; provisions were made for the deter-

mination of the rights of tribal citizenship and the allotment of lands to the individual Indians, and for the appointment of townsite commissions in each of the tribes, to survey and plat the sites of towns and villages and sell lots therein; the organization and incorporation of municipal governments was authorized; rules and regulations for the leasing of agricultural lands and of mineral deposits were prescribed. It was expressly provided that the tribal governments should continue for eight years longer. Congress also provided that the schools of the Indian Territory should pass to the control of a Federal superintendent and subordinate supervisors.

Governor Seay was removed from office by President Cleveland, who filled the vacancy thus created by appointing William C. Renfrow, of Norman, as governor of the Territory of Oklahoma, in May, 1893. At the end of Governor Renfrow's administration, President McKinley appointed Cassius M. Barnes, of Guthrie, who also served as governor of Oklahoma for the full term of four years. In 1901, President McKinley appointed William M. Jenkins, of Perry, (who had served during the preceding four years as secretary of the Territory), to the governorship. Governor Jenkins was removed from office by President Roosevelt after having served only seven months, and Thompson B. Ferguson, of Watonga, was appointed governor. At the expiration of Governor Ferguson's term of four years, President Roosevelt appointed Captain Frank Frantz, of Enid, who was the last governor of Oklahoma Territory, serving until the end of the territorial period.

In 1892, Dennis T. Flynn, of Guthrie, the republican nominee, was elected as territorial delegate to Congress. Mr. Flynn was re-elected. In 1896, James Y.

Callahan, of Dover, Kingfisher County, who was the nominee of both the Democratic and Populist parties, was elected as delegate to Congress. In 1898 and again in 1900, Dennis T. Flynn was re-elected to the position. In 1902, Bird S. McGuire, of Pawnee, the republican nominee, was elected as delegate to Congress and, two years later, was re-elected, serving until the end of the territorial period.

In the First Legislative Assembly, which was in session for five months, beginning August 27, 1890, three political parties, namely Democratic, Republican and Farmers' Alliance, were represented. However, political lines and differences were practically forgotten in the struggle over the location of the capital. In the Second Legislative Assembly, which convened in January, 1893, and in the Third Legislative Assembly, two years later, the republicans controlled both houses. In the fourth Legislative Assembly, which was in session at Guthrie, in 1897, the democrats and populists were in overwhelming control. In the Fifth Legislative Assembly, in 1899, the republicans had strong majorities in both houses. In the Sixth Legislative Assembly, in 1901, the democrats had a majority in Council and the republicans controlled the House. During this session occurred the struggle over the proposed location of a number of state institutions which caused much bitter feeling. The "Public Building Bill," as this measure was called, proposed the establishment of the Southwestern Normal School, the University Preparatory School, a penitentiary, and several other institutions. After the longest and bitterest struggle in territorial legislative history since the memorable fight on the location of the capital in the First Legislative Assembly, the "Public Building Bill" passed both houses but was finally vetoed by Governor Barnes. In the Sev-

enth Legislative Assembly, in 1903, the republicans organized and controlled the Council, while the democrats had a working majority in the House of Representatives. The republicans had a strong majority in both houses of the Eighth Legislative Assembly, which was the last in the territorial period.

The surplus lands of the Cheyenne and Arapaho Indian reservations were opened to settlement on April 19, 1892. The Cherokee Outlet (or Cherokee Strip, as it was commonly called) and the surplus lands of the Pawnee and Tonkawa Indian reservations were thrown open to settlement on September 16, 1893. The surplus lands of the Kickapoo Indian reservation were thrown open to settlement by executive proclamation on May 25, 1895. The opening of the Cheyenne and Arapaho country added six new counties to the organized part of Oklahoma Territory, which were designated by letter as counties "C," "D," "E," "F," "G" and "H." These counties were afterward named Blaine, Dewey, Day, Roger Mills, Custer and Washita. The opening of the Cherokee Outlet added seven new counties to the Territory, which were designated by letter as counties "K," "L," "M," "N," "O," "P" and "Q." These were afterward named Kay, Grant, Woods, Woodward, Garfield, Noble and Pawnee. The surplus lands of the Kickapoo Indian reservation were opened to settlement May 25, 1895. The Greer County case having been decided against the claims of the state of Texas, by the United States Supreme Court, in March, 1896, Greer County was reorganized under the laws of Oklahoma shortly afterward.

The Sac and Fox, Iowa, Pottawatomie-Shawnee, Cheyenne-Arapaho, Pawnee, Tonkawa and Kickapoo Indian reservations and the lands of the Cherokee Outlet

were all opened at a given hour and in each case there was a wild race and scramble for the most desirable homestead claims. Conflicting claims, disputes, quarrels and lawsuits were so numerous that it was determined that the method of opening other reservations to settlement should be on a different plan. So when the Indians of the Comanche-Kiowa and Wichita-Caddo reservations were induced to take allotments and permit the surplus lands of those reservations to be thrown open to settlement, it was arranged that each intending settler should register at the Government land offices at El Reno and Lawton; that the names of each should be enclosed in large boxes, to be mounted on axes so that they could be shuffled and mixed and that, then, as they were drawn out, the persons should be permitted to select and file on their homestead claims in order as their names were drawn. This unique "land lottery," as it was called, practically closed the homesteading era in Oklahoma. From the lands of these reservations three new counties—Caddo, Comanche and Kiowa—were organized.

Search Topics: Why was the "Curtis Act" so called?

What was the "Free Homes Bill" and who was its author?

What troops did Oklahoma and the Indian Territory contribute to the army during the war with Spain?

CHAPTER III

STATEHOOD WANTED

The establishment of a territorial government had been greatly desired. When it was secured, however, the people of Oklahoma were not satisfied. In the selection of men to be appointed as officers of the Territory, the President of the United States was free to choose men who were not citizens or residents of the Territory, and this was done despite the fact that strong "home rule" sentiments prevailed in Oklahoma. So the people of Oklahoma were soon longing for the organization of a state and its admission into the Union. A statehood convention was held at Oklahoma City, December 15, 1891, and, six weeks later, Delegate Harvey introduced the first statehood bill into Congress. Delegate Flynn introduced a statehood bill in the next Congress, in October, 1893. Both of these measures provided for the admission of Oklahoma and Indian Territory as one state. The leading men of the five civilized tribes were bitterly opposed to this. Wearied of this, many of the supporters of the statehood movement in Oklahoma Territory began to advocate statehood for Oklahoma alone. Beginning in 1894, this demand for "separate statehood" for Oklahoma grew in force and influence. The element which favored "single statehood" for the two territories found itself opposed by powerful influences in both territories. This struggle continued to grow in bitterness for a number of years. Many statehood conventions were held and Congress was flooded with petitions and memorials. In May, 1902, Delegate

Flynn succeeded in securing the passage of a bill, by the House of Representatives, which provided for the admission of Oklahoma Territory as a state. This measure did not come up for action in the Senate until the following December. The struggle became very intense and it seemed that the bill was sure to pass. In the end it was crowded out by other business. From that time on the movement for separate statehood for Oklahoma began to lose. Delegate McGuire introduced a separate statehood bill in the House during the next Congress, but it did not pass.

In the summer of 1905, the principal chiefs of four of the five civilized tribes united in issuing a call for a constitutional convention to meet at Muskogee, on August 21, for the purpose of forming a constitution for a state to be composed of the Indian Territory. One hundred and eighty-two delegates were elected to this convention but only one hundred and fifty of them attended its sessions. Pleasant Porter, the principal chief of the Creek Nation, was chosen as president of the convention and Alexander Posey, the Creek Indian poet, was made secretary. A constitution for a state to be named Sequoyah was framed by this convention and submitted to a vote of the people. Although it was adopted, in the election which followed, the vote was not as large as the projectors had hoped. The proposed state of Sequoyah was to be divided into forty-eight counties. The Sequoyah Constitution was submitted to Congress but no action was taken in regard to it. After the failure of this movement, all further hope of separate statehood for either Oklahoma or the Indian Territory was abandoned and the reunion of the two territories into one state seemed certain.

The end of the long struggle for statehood came

when Congress passed an "omnibus" bill, popularly known as the "Hamilton Bill," Chairman Hamilton, of the House Committee on Territories, being regarded as its author. This bill provided for the admission of Oklahoma and the Indian Territory into the Union as one state and for the admission of Arizona and New Mexico as one state. (The people of the last mentioned territories did not accept statehood under the terms of the Hamilton Bill.) The Hamilton Bill, properly known as the Enabling Act, was passed June 14, 1906, and was immediately approved by President Roosevelt. It provided for the holding of a constitutional convention to consist of 112 delegates, fifty-five of whom were to be from the Indian Territory, fifty-five from the organized counties of Oklahoma and two from the Osage Nation. Guthrie was designated as the temporary state capital; the new state was to have five congressional districts, the bounds of which were defined in the Enabling Act; the sum of \$5,000,000 was voted to the new state in lieu of school land reservations which could not be made in the Indian Territory. The election of delegates to the Constitutional Convention was to be held on November 6, 1906.

Party lines were closely drawn in the campaign which preceded the election of delegates to the Constitutional Convention. Ninety-nine of the delegates elected were democrats, twelve were republicans and one was elected as an independent.

Search Topics: What were some of the questions raised in the election of delegates?

For whom was the proposed state of Sequoyah named and why?

What is an "omnibus" bill and when was it so named?

CHAPTER IV

THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION

The delegates elected to the Constitutional Convention met at Guthrie November 20, 1906, and organized by electing officers, William H. Murray, of Tishomingo, being elected president. Committees were appointed and the convention began its work. The real leaders of the convention were included in a group of men who had helped to frame the Sequoyah Constitution, fifteen months before. There were forty-five standing committees, to each of which was given the consideration of particular or special features of the proposed constitution.

In its deliberations, the Constitutional Convention was not unlike an ordinary legislative body. Instead of introducing "bills," the delegates introduced "constitutional propositions," which were referred to the proper committees for consideration and report. Excepting the Christmas recess, the Constitutional Convention was in session until April 22, 1907, when it adjourned to meet again August 5th. On June 3d, President Murray issued a proclamation calling an election to be held August 6th, for the adoption of the Constitution and for the selection of state officers. As the convention had been controlled by democrats, the results of its work were severely criticized by many republicans. Among other complaints that were made was that the legislative district apportionments were unfair. A special census of the people of the two territories was ordered. President Murray then issued a call for the Constitutional Convention to reconvene.

In the meantime, he wrote a letter to President Roosevelt. When the convention met again, President Roosevelt's reply was read. A number of clauses of the constitution, as previously drafted, were reconsidered and amended or modified, including some sections of the legislative apportionment. After being in session six days, the Constitutional Convention again adjourned.

The Constitution of Oklahoma, which was thus framed, was not merely of interest to the people of the proposed new state. It was remarkable for its length, containing about 45,000 words. It contained many features that were new in state constitutions and was regarded as not merely progressive but radical. The right was reserved to the people of Oklahoma to initiate legislation and adopt it by direct vote and also to demand and receive the privilege of voting to approve or reject acts of the Legislature.

The new state was divided into seventy-five counties, which were named and the boundaries of which were described and the county seats were designated. Most of the counties in Oklahoma Territory were left as they had been, the larger counties (Woods, Woodward, Beaver, Comanche and Greer) being subdivided, and one county (Day) disappeared from the map, its area being divided between Ellis and Roger Mills counties. The prohibition of the liquor traffic was submitted as a separate clause.

On July 24, 1907, Governor Frank Frantz issued a proclamation calling an election for the adoption or rejection of the constitution to be held on the 17th of September following. State officers were to be chosen at the same time. Each party had a full ticket in the field. Charles N. Haskell, of Muskogee, who had been a prominent member of the Constitutional Conven-

tion, was the democratic nominee for governor and Governor Frank Frantz was the republican nominee. The constitution was adopted by an overwhelming majority, as was the separate clause for the prohibition of the liquor traffic, and the entire democratic ticket was elected, together with a strong, working majority of both branches of the Legislature. On November 16, 1907, President Theodore Roosevelt issued a proclamation, declaring Oklahoma to be a state duly admitted into the Union and thus the period of Oklahoma's territorial history was brought to a close.

Reference Work: "Journal of the Constitutional Convention of Oklahoma."

Search Topics: What nickname was given to the republican members of the Constitutional Convention and why?

What delegate in the Constitutional Convention submitted a draft for a complete constitution as a proposition?

How many counties in Oklahoma have Indian names?

How many counties were named for delegates in the Constitutional Convention?

PART VII

OKLAHOMA UNDER THE
CONSTITUTION

STATE GOVERNORS



C. N. HASKELL



LEE CRUCE



R. L. WILLIAMS



J. B. A. ROBERTSON

CHAPTER I

GOVERNOR HASKELL'S ADMINISTRATION

As soon as President Roosevelt had signed the proclamation declaring that Oklahoma had been formally admitted into the Union as a state, the tidings were transmitted to Oklahoma by telegraph. At Guthrie, all was in readiness and the duly elected officers of the new state were immediately inaugurated.

The first session of the State Legislature convened and organized at Guthrie, December 2, 1907. One of its first acts was the election of Robert L. Owen and Thomas P. Gore as the first United States senators from Oklahoma. Many important measures were considered and passed by the First Legislature. Among these might be mentioned the bank guaranty law and the establishment of a number of additional state institutions of learning. The "Jim Crow" law, requiring separate coaches and separate waiting rooms for negroes was passed. The First Legislature was in session for more than five months.

In the general election, which was held in November, 1908, the Second Legislature was chosen and the people of Oklahoma cast their first votes for the choice of a President of the United States, Oklahoma's electoral vote being given to William Jennings Bryan. Thomas P. Gore was chosen to succeed himself as United States senator. The Second Legislature met at Guthrie, in January, 1909. Several additional state institutions were established. The Second Legislature was convened in extra session in January, 1910. An amendment to the Constitution, commonly known as

"the Grandfather Clause," was submitted to a vote of the people.

Under the terms of the Enabling Act, the state capital was to remain at Guthrie until 1913. There was a question as to whether Congress had the power to bind a sovereign state in a matter of such purely local concern after it had been admitted into the Union. Oklahoma City had been recognized as an aspirant for the location of the capital of Oklahoma ever since its unsuccessful effort to secure the location of the territorial capital, twenty years before. There was no surprise, therefore, when an initiated bill was prepared by Oklahoma City people and petitions circulated for the purpose of securing a direct vote on the location of the permanent capital of the state. A sufficient showing having been made by the petitioners, Governor Haskell issued a proclamation calling for a special election to be held on June 11, 1910, for the purpose of locating the capital of the state. The petition had named Guthrie, Oklahoma City and Shawnee as the candidates for the capital location. Intense interest was manifested in the campaign. Declaring that Oklahoma City had won the election, Governor Haskell caused the great seal of the state of Oklahoma to be moved to Oklahoma City and announced that the capital was already moved, although few of the people who voted for the change expected to see the capital moved until 1913. Guthrie citizens took the matter to the courts in the hope of saving the capital to their town, but in the end all of the state offices were moved to Oklahoma City.

In the general election which was held in November, 1910, Lee Cruce, of Ardmore, the democratic candidate, was chosen as governor of the state. Joseph W. McNeal, of Guthrie, was the republican nominee. The

prohibitory clause of the state constitution which had forbidden the traffic in alcoholic liquors, was resubmitted to a vote of the people by an initiated bill, but it was sustained by a heavier majority than that by which it was first adopted.

The Federal census of 1910 showed that Oklahoma had a population of 1,657,155, an increase of nearly 110 per cent in ten years.

Search Topics: What other states changed the location of their capitals after being admitted to the Union?

How many state institutions of learning has Oklahoma?

What state institution of learning was established on the site and in the building once belonging to a tribal seminary?

CHAPTER II

GOVERNOR CRUCE'S ADMINISTRATION

The Third Legislature was convened in extraordinary session a month before the end of Governor Haskell's administration for the purpose of definitely locating the state capital and selecting a site for the capitol building. Several sites were offered together with donations of land which, it was claimed, could be sold for enough to pay for the erection of the capitol. The one finally chosen was located adjacent to Oklahoma City on the northeast. Aside from locating the capitol site, providing for the creation of a state capitol commission and for the consolidation of the governing boards of a number of the state institutions of learning into an agency to be known as the State Board of Education, most of the work of the Third Legislature was of local rather than general interest.

During the first four years of the state government, a large number of direct legislative measures were initiated and submitted to a vote of the people, some of them in regular elections and some of them in special elections.

As the result of the Federal census of 1910, Oklahoma's representation in the National House of Representatives was increased to eight members. Governor Cruce was urged to call a special session of the Legislature in 1912 for the purpose of redistricting the state, but he declined to do so. In the general election of 1912, therefore, three congressmen from Oklahoma had to be elected at large. The state cast its electoral vote for Woodrow Wilson for President of the United

States. Robert L. Owen was unanimously re-elected to the United States Senate, by the Fourth Legislature, in obedience to a mandatory instruction by the voters of the state.

The Fourth Legislature was not in harmony with the policies of Governor Cruce. The control of the state election board and of the state capitol commission was taken from him. The end of the session found so much important business unfinished that a special session had to be called, though the governor exacted as a condition that no new business should be undertaken.

In his message to the regular session of the Fourth Legislature, which was issued some weeks before it convened, Governor Cruce took strong grounds in favor of the abolition or consolidation of some of the state institutions of learning. However, he did not veto legislative appropriations for the same, so nothing came of the movement to reduce the number of state schools.

The political campaign of 1914 was the most spirited that had been known since the campaign of 1907, when the Constitution was adopted and the first state officer elected. Robert L. Williams, of Durant, who had been a delegate in the Constitutional Convention and who had served as a justice of the Supreme Court ever since statehood until he resigned to become a candidate for governor, was nominated by the democrats, while the republicans nominated John Fields, who had long been prominent as an agricultural writer and leader. Thomas P. Gore was renominated for the United States Senate by the democrats. The election resulted in a democratic victory, though by reduced pluralities.

Before the end of Governor Cruce's administration, the great war in Europe broke out and soon the peo-

ple of Oklahoma, though far removed from the scene of the conflict, realized that they were affected. The sudden fall in the price of cotton had a most depressing effect upon business conditions for a time.

Search Topics: How many of the state institutions are under the control of the State Board of Education? How many under the control of the State Board of Agriculture?

What part did Oklahoma democrats take in the nomination of Woodrow Wilson for President of the United States?

What is the difference between a majority and a plurality in an election?

CHAPTER III

GOVERNOR WILLIAMS' ADMINISTRATION

One of the last acts of Governor Cruce before retiring from office was to take part in the ceremony of breaking ground for the erection of the new capitol. The building of the capitol proceeded rapidly during the first part of Governor Williams' administration. Unlike the preceding administration, there was no lack of harmony between the legislative and executive branches of the state government. The Fifth Legislature did not finish its work within the specified sixty-day session, so it was called in a special session.

In June, 1916, when there was trouble on the Mexican border, the officers and men of the Oklahoma National Guard were ordered to Fort Sill, where they were inducted into the Federal service and, several weeks later, were sent to the Rio Grande. They remained in the service until a short time before the United States became involved in the war.

In the general election of 1916, Oklahoma cast its electoral vote for the re-election of Woodrow Wilson as President of the United States. The Sixth Legislature convened in January, 1917, in the new capitol, at Oklahoma City. The building was only partially completed. The various state offices began moving to the capitol six months later. Among the more important measures passed by the Sixth Legislature was the submission of an amendment to the Constitution for the purpose of conferring the full rights of citizenship upon women.

When America became involved in the great world

war, in April, 1917, the people of Oklahoma immediately manifested the keenest interest in doing their part, their loyalty to the cause of the United States and its allies being shown in many ways. The local recruiting offices of the Army, Navy and Marine Corps were thronged with young men who were eager to offer their services in the struggle that was to follow. The Oklahoma National Guard was again mobilized for the Federal service but it was no longer the inefficient organization that it had been, for all of the officers and most of the men had been toughened and trained by their eight months duty in patrolling the border until they were like seasoned veterans. As rapidly as possible, the local draft boards were organized and prepared for duty, the state, county and local councils of defense, the Red Cross and other forms of war work were organized and gotten into working order. In a few localities the spirit of disloyalty appeared and threatened to oppose the selective draft of young men for army service but it was resolutely suppressed and the young men of the prescribed ages were registered at the proper time. As the names of the men who were drawn for induction into the service were announced, most of them accepted it proudly as a call to duty. As they were gathered in groups and squads to go to the great training camps, the people assembled to cheer them and bid them Godspeed. Several thousand young men from Oklahoma, in the National Guard organizations and in the draft units, saw active service on the battle front in France and many of them laid down their lives in the strife for world liberty, while hundreds of others were wounded. Many also died of disease in the camps at home and abroad. A few lost their lives when the troop-ship *Tuscania* was sunk by a German U-boat. And the

people of Oklahoma, who were proud of their soldiers, rejoiced when the tidings of peace came—they did not want war until their country was forced to take part in it, but they were ready for any sacrifice to win it while it lasted.

In the general election of 1918, James B. A. Robertson, of Oklahoma City, who was the democratic nominee, was elected over Horace G. McKeever, of Enid, the republican nominee. The woman's suffrage amendment to the state constitution was adopted by a popular vote at the same election.

Search Topics: How was a county council of defense organized and what were its duties?

What was the state food administration and how did it operate? Why was it necessary?

How did the people of Oklahoma help the Red Cross Society?

PART VIII

SOCIAL, INDUSTRIAL AND COM-
MERCIAL DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER I

EDUCATION

The beginning of the educational history of Oklahoma must be found in the story of the missionaries and mission stations which were established, mostly after the migration of the five civilized tribes. (Two mission stations—Union and Hopefield—were established by the United Missionary Society before the migration of the five civilized tribes began.) Five religious denominations were represented in the Indian Territory mission field—Baptist, Congregational, Methodist, Moravian and Presbyterian. The Congregational and Presbyterian missions were under the direction of a missionary society known as the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. This society operated more mission stations and mission schools than all of the others combined. Most of the mission schools were boarding schools and few of them carried their pupils further than the common school grades.

One of the principal missions of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions was the Park Hill Mission, which was located about five miles south of Tahlequah. An extensive printing and book-binding establishment was operated in connection with the Park Hill Mission. Most of the books which were published for use in the mission schools among the Choctaws, Chickasaws, Creeks and Seminoles by the Presbyterian and Congregational missionaries were printed on the mission press at Park Hill, as well as the books and tracts which were prepared for the

Cherokees. The Baptist Cherokee Mission, which was located near the present town of Westville, in Adair County, also had a printing establishment, from which books and tracts were issued for all of the five civilized tribes.

Ten years after the migration of the main body of the Cherokee tribe, the Cherokee National Council authorized the erection of two large school buildings which were to house the Cherokee Female Seminary and the Cherokee Male Seminary. These two institutions were opened for students in 1851. They were only operated a few years, however, having to be closed on account of the lack of funds, before the outbreak of the Civil War. They were re-opened in 1875 and were continuously operated until the beginning of the statehood period. They exercised a great influence upon the Cherokee people.

The Civil War put an end to most of the missionary enterprises in the Indian Territory. While missionary work was resumed after the end of the war, it was not on the same scale and the operations were on different plans. The American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions retired from the field permanently. An educational department was organized by each of the five civilized tribes and these operated systems of common schools, which were supplemented by the various tribal academies, seminaries and boarding schools. These neighborhood schools were maintained until the tribal school systems were taken over by the Federal authorities, in 1899.

When the Indians of other tribes were settled in the Indian Territory, between 1867 and 1875, schools for their children were established for them by the Government, at the various tribal agencies and elsewhere. Most of these are still in operation.

Within a few years after the Civil War, white people began to settle in the reservations of the five civilized tribes, as tenants of the Indians. In some places these tenant farmers tried to maintain schools for their children by private tuition—subscription schools, as they were commonly called. Such schools were poor at best. Many neighborhoods had no schools at all, consequently some of the people grew up to manhood and womanhood without any education whatsoever.

When the Oklahoma country was opened to settlement, the organization of schools was one of the first matters to receive attention in every community. Subscription schools were maintained in practically all of the towns in the Oklahoma country during the first year. After the Organic Act was passed and put into effect, and immediately after the opening and the settlement of each new tract, or reservation, and the organization of the counties, school districts were organized. Many schoolhouses were built of logs, in the eastern counties. In the central and western part of the Territory, the walls of some of the first schoolhouses were of sod.

The story of the establishment and development of the state institutions of learning is virtually a part of the political history of the state. The First Territorial Legislative Assembly established three such institutions. Three more were established during the Territorial period. A dozen more have been added since.

CHAPTER II

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

All of the people of the five civilized tribes were tillers of the soil. Their farming operations were not generally extensive, though some of the mixed-blood people opened up large plantations and cultivated them, largely by the aid of slave labor.

The farm of the average full-blood Indian consisted of a small clearing in the forest. The trees were deadened by girdling and a rail fence was built around the tract. The farm buildings were neither numerous nor large. The family home was usually in a log cabin of one or two rooms. A few acres of corn were raised and this, with the more common garden vegetables, furnished a large part of the food. The live stock was turned out upon the open to range at will. The people were well supplied with horses, cattle and hogs. Some of them kept sheep, principally in order to supply themselves with wool. Little or no grain was fed to live stock, except such hogs as were penned in the fall to be fed and fattened for killing. Cotton was grown in a small way among all of the people of the five civilized tribes but was not grown on a commercial scale except in the valley of the Red River and in a few neighborhoods along the Arkansas River. Where it was grown in a small way, the seed was separated from the lint by hand and the staple thus secured was used in spinning and weaving the home-made fabrics.

Wild game was plentiful, the streams abounded with fish and these helped to supply the people with food.

The fare upon which most of the people lived was plain, simple and wholesome and was nearly all produced at home.

Stores and trading establishments appeared among the Indians as soon as they were settled in their new homes. Most of the commercial intercourse with the outside world was carried on by means of steamboats on the Arkansas and Red rivers. The nearest railways were still several hundred miles distant when the Civil War ended, though the survey of one of the projected Pacific railway lines, which had been made by the Government nearly ten years before the Civil War, had crossed the Indian Territory from east to west.

The building of the first railway lines brought great changes into the life of the people of the Indian Territory. It was no longer so remote from the great commercial centers. Mails were more frequent and more regular than ever before. The deposits of coal, which had long been known, were brought within reach and mines were opened up. White men began to lease land from Indians and the culture of cotton was undertaken on a larger scale generally.

Fifteen years after the building of the first railways in the eastern part of the Indian Territory, two lines were projected in the central and western portions (Santa Fe), one of the original lines (the Frisco, formerly called the Atlantic and Pacific) was extended from Vinita southwestward, across the Arkansas River, and another line was built from Fort Smith southwestward, the Choctaw Nation, to Paris, Texas. Then the Iron Mountain railway line from Fort Smith and Van Buren was built up the valley of the Arkansas to Fort Gibson and thence to Coffeyville, Kansas. With the opening of the Oklahoma country to home-

stead settlement, the building of the Rock Island line from Caldwell, Kansas, southward on the line of the old Chisholm Trail was undertaken and the Choctaw (now Rock Island) line from Fort Reno eastward through Oklahoma City, McAlester and Wister was inaugurated, though it was not completed for many years. Between 1892 and 1898, there was practically no railway building done in the two territories except that of the Kansas City Southern line. In 1898-99-1900, there were a number of branch lines and extensions built. In 1902-03, there was more railway building in the two territories than at any other one period.

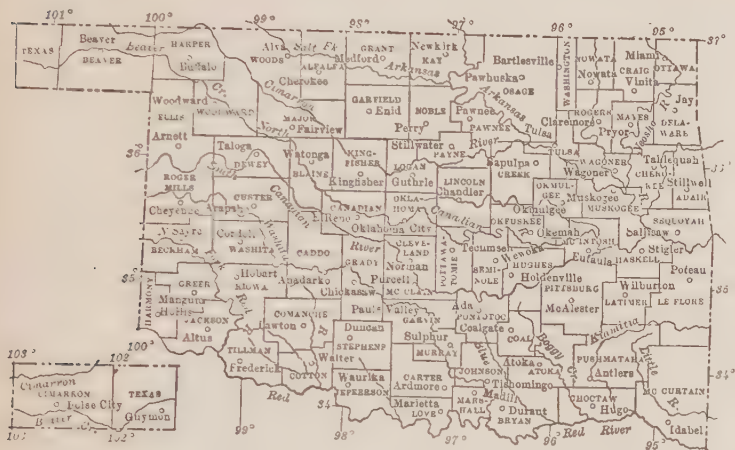
Oil has been known to exist in Oklahoma for many years. The first oil wells were opened up in a shallow field in Rogers and Craig counties, but the first big strikes were made in the Red Fork district, in 1901, since which time the development has been rapid. The coal mining industry continued to grow with the development of different fields by the construction of new railway lines. Gas has been found in practically all of the oil fields of Oklahoma and it has been largely used as fuel for domestic and manufacturing purposes.

With the opening of the Oklahoma country, the area devoted to the culture of field crops—especially corn and cotton—was largely increased. The production of wheat as a staple crop also dates from that time. The grain sorghums—kafir corn, milo, etc.,—were also grown in a small way from that time on and, in recent years, these have been counted among the most important crops grown in Oklahoma.

Although Oklahoma has vast possibilities in the way of horticultural development, they are as yet almost untouched. Native fruits of many species and varieties are to be found in different parts of the state.

In addition to coal, oil and gas, the other mineral

resources of Oklahoma include salt, lime, cement, plaster, lead, zinc, iron ore, building stones of many kinds and grades, and fire clays of many varieties which are suitable for manufacturing purposes. Most of these resources and industries are as yet undeveloped.



1919

Congress passed the Enabling Act June 14, 1906.

Delegates to the Constitutional Convention were elected November 6, 1906.

The Constitutional Convention met at Guthrie November 20, 1906, and adjourned in July, 1907.

The Constitution was ratified and state and county officers were elected September 17, 1907, and Oklahoma was proclaimed a state of the Union November 16, 1907.

The Constitution provided for seventy-five counties; two counties, Cotton and Harmon, have since been established; Harmon County from a part of Greer County June 2, 1909, and Cotton County from the southern part of Comanche County August 28, 1912. Another county (Swanson) was formed from parts of Kiowa and Comanche counties, but the procedure was declared illegal and it was dissolved.

The capital of the state was moved from Guthrie to Oklahoma City June 11, 1910.

BIOGRAPHIES OF MEN PROMINENT IN OKLAHOMA HISTORY

Sequoyah, or George Guess, was born in the Cherokee Nation about 1760. His mother, a fullblood Cherokee woman, was deserted by her white husband before the birth of Sequoyah. His early life was like that of the average Indian boy of his time. He learned no language but that of his mother's people and he was unable to read or write. He was a man of mature years before he ever saw a book at one of the mission stations. When he learned that the printed characters represented sounds and words and that ideas could be conveyed by such means, his amazement was great. Then he conceived the idea of inventing an alphabet for the use of his own people, so they, too, might read and write. At first he tried to make a separate character or letter for each word in the Cherokee language, but finally he succeeded in devising an alphabet in which there was a separate letter for each possible syllable in the language and one for the letter "s," or, as he called it, "the hissing sound." By means of this alphabet any Cherokee could learn to read with ease in the course of two or three weeks. Type was cast for the new alphabet, books were printed and, within a few years, nearly all of the Cherokee people had learned to read. Sequoyah moved to the country of the Western Cherokees, in Arkansas, in 1823, and, six years later, came with them to the new reservation in Oklahoma. He was greatly loved by his people, who still honor his memory. He died in 1844, while on a hunting and exploring expedition in Mexico.

John Ross, the leader of the Anti-Treaty Party among the Cherokees, was born near the foot of Lookout Mountain, in East Tennessee, in 1793. His father was a native of Scotland and his mother was a mixed-blood Cherokee. He received a fair education and in his early manhood became prominent in the affairs of his people. In 1828, he was elected principal chief of the Cherokee tribe, an office which he held continuously until his death, nearly forty years later. He was the leader of the majority of the Cherokee people in their determined opposition to the proposed migration to the West. Although in appearance he was a white man, he exerted great influence over the fullblood members of the Cherokee tribe. He tried to keep the Cherokee Nation from becoming involved in the Civil War, but did not succeed. He then entered into an alliance with the Confederate States but later returned to the support of the Union. He died in Washington, D. C., August 1, 1866, where he had been attending the council between the Cherokee delegates and the Government commissioners in the negotiation of a new treaty.

The leaders of the Treaty Party, in the Cherokee Nation, were Ridge (or, as he was commonly called, Major Ridge), John Ridge (who was a son of Major Ridge) and Elias Boudinot (who was a nephew of Major Ridge). Ridge was born near Hiwassee, Georgia, about 1791. His Cherokee name signified "He who walks upon the ridge," whence his English name. During the War of 1812, he served as major of the Cherokee regiment in General Andrew Jackson's army in the Creek country, hence his title of Major. His son, John Ridge, was born in Georgia about 1801. His education was begun in the mission schools of the Moravians. In 1818, he was sent with two other young Cherokees to a mission school at Cornwall, Connecticut. There he made the acquaintance of Miss Sarah B. Northrop, to whom he was afterward married. He was a man of great influence among the Cherokees. He was assassinated on the same day that his father and his cousin, Elias Boudinot, were—June 22, 1839—by the partisans of the Anti-Treaty Party.

Elias Boudinot was born near Rome, Georgia, about 1802. Like his cousin, John Ridge, he was sent to Cornwall, Connecticut, to attend school. During the course of his journey he visited Elias Boudinot, the eminent jurist and diplomat, who was his patron and benefactor. As a

compliment to him, the young Cherokee adopted his name. Several years after leaving the Cornwall school, he returned to that village to marry Miss Harriet Gold, whose acquaintance he had made while he was a student. He was one of the most progressive men in the Cherokee tribe. He labored with the missionaries in translating the Bible into the Cherokee language and he was the editor of the Cherokee Phoenix, which was the first paper published for any Indian tribe. With Major Ridge and John Ridge, he was regarded as a leader of the Treaty Party and he met his death by assassination on the same day that they did. Several of his descendants have been prominent in the affairs of the Cherokee Nation. Stand Watie, the Cherokee Confederate leader, was a younger brother of Boudinot.

Opothleyahola was a Creek Indian of unmixed blood. He was probably born before 1800 and had seen active service in war against the white people, possibly as early as the War of 1812. He was the recognized leader of that portion of the Creek tribe which was bitterly opposed to the removal to the Indian Territory. At the outbreak of the Civil War, he refused to listen to or consider any alliance with the Confederate States. Rather than do that, he chose to lead his followers in exile to Kansas. He died in a Creek refugee camp near the Sac and Fox Agency, at Quenemo, Kansas, in 1862.

Stand Watie was born at Rome, Georgia, in 1805. He was a younger brother of Elias Boudinot and a nephew of Major Ridge and with them was one of the signers of the removal treaty of 1835. He was said to have been marked for assassination at the same time that the Ridges and Boudinot were killed but was warned and escaped. From that time on (June 22, 1839), he was regarded as the leader of the Ridge, or Treaty Party of the Cherokee Nation. He was strongly in favor of the secession movement before the Cherokee Nation entered into an alliance with the Confederate States. He entered the Confederate Army as a colonel, in 1861, and was promoted to the rank of brigadier general in 1864. He died September 2, 1871.

Allan Wright was born in Mississippi about 1825. With his parents he moved to the Indian Territory in the big Choctaw migration, in 1832. His mother died during the journey to the West and his father did not live long after the arrival in the new country. He made his home with the family of one of the Presbyterian missionaries and his education was begun in the mission schools. He was fitted for college and then went East to complete his education. He graduated from Union College, Schenectady, New York, in 1852, and from the Union Theological Seminary, New York City, in 1855. Returning to the Choctaw Nation, he was ordained to the ministry and thenceforward labored among the people of his own tribe. He was one of the commissioners of the Choctaw Nation who signed the treaty of alliance with the Confederate States and, after the end of the War, was chosen as one of the commissioners to negotiate a new treaty with the United States. He was the author or compiler of a Choctaw-English lexicon or definer. Just before his death he completed a translation of the Psalms from the Hebrew directly into Choctaw. He died in 1885.

Jesse Chisholm was born in the old Cherokee country, in East Tennessee, about 1806. His father was of Scottish extraction and his mother was a Cherokee Indian woman. He joined the Western Cherokees in Arkansas in his youth. He became noted in the Southwest as a hunter, guide, scout, trader and pathfinder. He left the Cherokee Nation and settled in the Creek Nation, near the mouth of Little River, in Hughes County, where he made his home. At various times he had trading posts out on the edge of the Great Plains, including one near the site of Lexington (in Cleveland County) and one at Council Grove (near Oklahoma City). Much of his trading was done by taking wagons and going to the villages of the Comanche and other tribes of the Great Plains. At various times he rescued captive children and youths from the Comanches and Kiowas by ransoming them. Most of these were Mexicans. He adopted them and reared them with his own family, treating them just as he did his own children. He went to Kansas with the Creek exiles, in the latter part of 1861, but soon drifted west to the site of Wichita, Kansas, where the Wichita, Waco and other refugee tribes from Southwestern Oklahoma

were encamped. In March, 1865, just as the war was drawing to an end, he loaded several wagons with goods and started southward to the valleys of the Canadian and Washita rivers to trade. On this trip he merely followed the trace of the trail that was made by the retreating Federal garrisons from Forts Smith, Washita, Arbuckle and Cobb, nearly four years before. Ever afterward this route was known as the Chisholm Trail. Jesse Chisholm died in his trading camp, in Blaine County, in March, 1868.

Joseph G. McCoy was born at Springfield, Illinois, December 20, 1837. Of his early life but little is known. He became a cattle feeder and, at the end of the Civil War, when beef cattle were scarce and high in price, he became interested in trying to transport range cattle from the ranges of Western Texas to the corn belt and to the markets of Chicago and other western cities. He dreamed the dream of the cattle trail and made it come true, though he did not profit greatly from the experiment himself. He continued to be actively interested in the live stock business as long as he lived. When Oklahoma was opened to settlement, he located at El Reno and, in 1890, was nominated as a candidate for delegate to Congress by the first territorial convention of the Democratic party. He died at Kansas City, October 19, 1915.

~~David~~ L. Payne was born near Fairmont, Indiana, December 30, 1836. He was reared on a farm and received only such schooling as was given by the rural schools of his time. At the age of twenty-one, he settled in Doniphan County, Kansas, where he took a homestead. He entered the Union Army at the beginning of the Civil War, serving a three-year term of enlistment. He was then elected to the lower house of the Kansas Legislature and, immediately after the adjournment of the session, he re-enlisted in the army, serving until the end of the War. In 1867, and again in 1868, he was in the field in the war against the Indians of the Plains, each time as the captain of a troop of cavalry. In 1870, he settled on a homestead in Sedgwick County, Kansas, whence he was again sent to the State Legislature. He was of a restless, roving disposition and not much is known of his life between 1872 and 1879. In the last mentioned year he became identified with the movement to settle the Oklahoma country, of which he soon became the recognized leader, a position which he retained until his death, which occurred at Wellington, Kansas, November 27, 1884.

George W. Steele was born in Fayette County, Indiana, December 13, 1839. He was educated in the public schools at Marion, Indiana, and in the Ohio Wesleyan University. At the age of twenty, he began the study of law in his father's office and he was admitted to the bar just as the Civil War broke out. He entered the volunteer military service as a private and rose from the ranks through the various grades to that of lieutenant colonel. After the end of the War he was given a commission in the Regular Army, which he resigned after being in the service for ten years. He then engaged in farming, pork packing and banking. In 1880, he was elected to a seat in Congress and was re-elected in 1882, 1884 and 1886. He served as governor of Oklahoma from May, 1890, to October, 1891. In 1894, he was again elected to Congress and was twice re-elected. He is still living (1919) at Marion, Indiana.

David A. Harvey was born at Stewiakke, Nova Scotia, March 20, 1845. His parents emigrated to Ohio during his infancy. At the outbreak of the Civil War, although only sixteen years old, he entered the volunteer military service, as a private in the 4th Ohio Cavalry, and served until the end of the War. He attended the sessions of Miami University for several terms and then took up the study of law. In 1869, he was admitted to the bar. He settled at Topeka, Kansas, where he engaged in the practice of his profession and filled the offices of city attorney and probate judge. He took an active part in the agitation for the opening of Oklahoma to white settlement and was among the pioneers who located at Oklahoma City on the first day. He served in Congress from November, 1890, to March, 1893. Several years later he located at Wyandotte, Ottawa County, where he made his home until his death, May 23, 1916.

Abraham Jefferson Seay was born near Lynchburg, Virginia, November 28, 1832. When he was three years old his parents moved to Missouri,

where he was reared on a farm. After gaining what education he could in the neighborhood schools, he secured a few books, taught a country school, attended an academy at Steelville, studied law and was admitted to the bar, in April, 1861. He enlisted in the volunteer army at the outbreak of the Civil War and was commissioned lieutenant. Remaining in the active service to the end of the War, he was mustered out with the rank of major. Taking up the practice of his profession, he also became quite active in political affairs. He served as district judge for twelve years. When the Territory of Oklahoma was organized, in May, 1890, he was named as chief justice of the Territorial Supreme Court and, sixteen months later, was named as governor to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Governor Steele. He served until May, 1893, when he was removed by President Cleveland. He then settled at Kingfisher, where he continued to make his home until his death, which occurred in California, December 22, 1915. He was buried at Kingfisher.

Dennis T. Flynn was born at Phoenixville, Pennsylvania, in 1861. He was educated at Buffalo, New York, where he also studied law. In 1882, he settled at Kiowa, Kansas, on the northern border of Oklahoma, where he practiced law, served as postmaster and published a local newspaper. In 1889, he was commissioned as postmaster at Guthrie. In 1892, he was elected to Congress as delegate from Oklahoma and was re-elected in 1894. In 1896, he was renominated but was defeated in the election by James Y. Callahan, the fusion nominee. In 1898, and again in 1900, he was re-elected as territorial delegate to Congress. Since 1903, he has been engaged in the practice of law at Oklahoma City.

William C. Renfrow was born at Smithfield, North Carolina, March 15, 1845. He was educated in the local schools, which he quit to enter the Confederate Army at the outbreak of the Civil War. In 1865, he settled in Arkansas, where he lived until the opening of the Oklahoma country, when he settled at Norman, in Cleveland County, and engaged in the banking business. He served as governor of Oklahoma from May 7, 1893, to May 24, 1897. His home is in Kansas City, Missouri, and he is largely interested in the lead and zinc mining business, in Southwestern Missouri.

James Y. Callahan was born in Dent County, Missouri, in 1852. He was reared on a farm and educated in the rural schools of his native state. He followed the calling of a farmer. In 1885, he moved to Western Kansas, whence he came to Kingfisher County, Oklahoma, in 1892. While living in Kansas he served as register of deeds. In recent years he has lived at Enid, where he is engaged in business.

Cassius M. Barnes was born in Livingston County, New York, 1845. While he was a child, his parents moved to Michigan, where he was educated. During the Civil War he served in an engineer company in the quartermaster corps and in the military telegraph corps. After the end of the War, he settled at Little Rock, Arkansas, where he held several appointive positions in the Government service. In 1889, he was appointed receiver of the Land Office, at Guthrie, Oklahoma, a position which he held for four years. In 1894, he was elected to the lower house of the Territorial Legislative Assembly and was chosen speaker of that body. Two years later, he again represented his district in the Assembly. He served a full term of four years as governor. After his retirement from the governor's office, he served two terms as mayor of Guthrie. For several years past he has lived in Kansas.

William M. Jenkins was born in Stark County, Ohio, in 1856. His parents were Quakers. He was educated in the public schools and at Mount Union College. He taught school and read law. He settled at Arkansas City, Kansas, in 1888. In 1893, he secured a homestead in the Cherokee Strip, in Kay County. In June, 1897, he was appointed secretary of the Territory by President McKinley. In April, 1897, he was named by President McKinley for the governorship of Oklahoma Territory. For a number of years after his retirement from public life, Governor Jenkins was engaged in farming in Kay County. For several years past he has made his home at Sapulpa.

Thompson B. Ferguson was born near Des Moines, Iowa, in 1857. During his childhood, his parents moved to Chautauqua County, Kansas,

where he attended the public schools. He attended the State Normal School at Emporia, after which he engaged in educational work. He settled at Watonga, Blaine County, when the Cheyenne and Arapaho country was thrown open to settlement, in 1892, where he engaged in the newspaper business. From 1897 to 1901, he served as postmaster at Watonga. After his retirement from the governorship, he resumed the active charge of the publication of the Watonga Republican. In 1907, he was the republican nominee for Congress from his district but was defeated in the election.

Bird S. McGuire was born at Belleville, Illinois, in 1864. Most of his early life was spent in Northern Missouri. During his earlier manhood, he spent several years on a stock ranch in the Indian Territory. He entered the Kansas State Normal School, at Emporia, in 1884, where he spent two years. He then engaged in teaching, reading law at the same time, later completing his professional preparation at the law school of the University of Kansas. He filled the office of the county attorney of Chautauqua County, Kansas, for two terms. In 1895, he located at Pawnee, Oklahoma. In 1897, he was appointed assistant United States District Attorney. In 1902, he was nominated by the republicans for delegate to Congress. In 1904, he was renominated and re-elected. In 1907, he was elected as representative in Congress from the first district of Oklahoma and was re-elected in 1908, 1910 and 1912. He now lives in Tulsa, where he is following the practice of law.

Frank Frantz was born at Roanoke, Illinois, May 7, 1872. He was educated in the public schools of his native state and spent two years as a student in Furka College. He settled at Enid, Oklahoma, in September, 1893. Afterward, he engaged in mining, in Arizona, whence he entered the volunteer military service as a lieutenant of the 1st United States Volunteer Cavalry (Roosevelt's Rough Riders) at the outbreak of the Spanish-American War, in 1898. He was promoted to the grade of captain while in Cuba. In 1901, he was appointed postmaster at Enid. In 1903, he was appointed Agent for the Osage Indians. He served as governor of Oklahoma Territory from January 5, 1906, until the inauguration of the state government, November 16, 1907. In recent years, Governor Franz has lived at Bartlesville.

Pleasant Porter was born on a plantation near Clarksville, in the Creek Nation, September 26, 1840. His father was a member of a prominent family in Pennsylvania and his mother was a daughter of an influential Creek chief. He was educated in the Presbyterian Indian Mission school, at Tullahassee. He entered the Confederate Army as a private when the Creek Nation became involved in the Civil War. The end of the war found him a first lieutenant. Impoverished by the results of the war in his country, he took up the life of a farmer. His first official position was that of tribal superintendent of schools. Afterward he was called upon to represent the people of his tribe at Washington. During the last years of his life he was principal chief of the Creek Nation. His death occurred at Vinita, in September, 1907.

William H. Murray was born at Collinsville, Texas, in 1869. His mother died when he was but two years old. He was thrown upon his own resources at the age of twelve. Most of his life at that period was spent working on a farm and attending the public schools in the winter. He secured an academic education at College Hill Institute, Springtown, Texas, after which he engaged in teaching school and reading law. He also took an active interest in politics. He was admitted to the bar in 1897, and, a year later, settled at Tishomingo, where he practiced law for a time and later engaged in farming. He took a prominent part in the Sequoyah statehood movement and, when the state constitutional convention was organized, he was easily elected as its presiding officer. He served as speaker of the House of Representatives in the First Legislature. In 1912, he was elected as a representative in Congress and was re-elected in 1914. He is at present engaged in farming near Tishomingo.

Charles N. Haskell was born in Ohio, December 13, 1861. At the age of sixteen he began to teach school, continuing for several years. While teaching, he began the study of law. After being admitted to the practice of law, he settled at Ottawa, Ohio. He also became interested in railway construction. In 1900, he settled at Muskogee. He became

X prominent as one of the leaders of the Sequoyah statehood movement, in 1905. The next year he was elected as a delegate to the State Constitutional Convention, in which he wielded a powerful influence. In 1907, he was nominated by the democrats as their candidate for governor and was elected and inaugurated as the first governor of the new state. In 1912, he was an unsuccessful candidate for the democratic nomination for United States Senator. In recent years he has been largely interested in the oil business. He now resides in New York City.

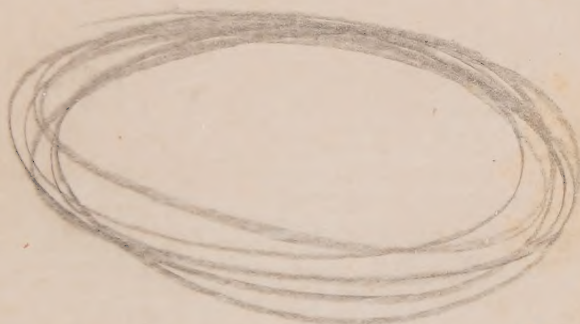
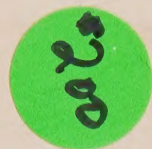
Thomas P. Gore was born in Webster County, Mississippi, December 10, 1870. After receiving a common school education, he entered the law school of Cumberland University, Lebanon, Tennessee, whence he graduated in 1892. In 1896, he settled in Texas and, five years later, at Lawton, Oklahoma. In 1902, he was elected to the upper house of the Territorial Legislative Assembly. When the state of Oklahoma was admitted into the Union, he was elected as one of its first United States Senators. He was re-elected in 1908 and again in 1914. Senator Gore has been totally blind since he was a young boy.

N Lee Cruce was born at Marion, Kentucky, July 8, 1863. His education was obtained in the common schools, with one year in Marion Academy. His early life was spent on the farm. Deciding to qualify himself for the practice of law, he entered the law school of Vanderbilt University, at Nashville, Tennessee, but remained there only one year. His law studies were completed in the office of his brother, at Marion. He was admitted to the bar in 1888. In 1891, he located at Ardmore, where he engaged in the banking business. He served as regent of the University of Oklahoma from 1908 to 1911. Nominated by the democrats for governor of the state, he was elected in November, 1910, and served one full term in that office. His home is still at Ardmore.

Robert L. Owen was born at Lynchburg, Virginia, February 2, 1856. His mother was a member of a prominent Cherokee family. Her early life was largely spent in Oklahoma, though her education had been completed in the East. Robert L. Owen was educated in private schools and at Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Virginia. After completing his education, he came to the country of his mother's people—the Cherokees. He engaged in teaching for several years and, in 1885, became agent for the Union Indian Agency, at Muskogee, a position which he held for four years. He took an active part in all of the discussion and agitation which preceded statehood, actively supporting the proposition of separate statehood for the Indian Territory. When the state was admitted into the Union, in 1907, he was one of the nominees of the democratic party for the United States Senate and as such was elected. He was re-elected in 1912 and again in 1918.

W Robert L. Williams was born at Brundidge, Alabama, December 20, 1868. He was admitted to the practice of law in 1891 and began his professional career at Troy, Alabama. In 1897, he located at Atoka, Indian Territory, and a few months later at Durant. He was chosen as a delegate to the Oklahoma Constitutional Convention, in 1906. He took an active part in the deliberations of the convention and was the author of many of the most advanced and progressive features of the constitution which it framed. In the election of 1907, he was chosen as a justice of the Supreme Court. In 1908, he was re-elected. In 1914, he was nominated and elected to the office of governor. At the end of his term, he was named as United States district judge for the eastern district of Oklahoma. He now resides at Muskogee.

† James B. A. Robertson was born on a farm in Keokuk County, Iowa, March 15, 1871, and was educated in the common schools of that state. At the age of twenty, he came to Oklahoma, locating at Chandler, in Lincoln County, where he followed farming and school teaching. In 1898, he was admitted to the bar and has since been engaged in the practice of law. He has filled several official positions, serving as county attorney, district judge and justice of the Supreme Court Commission. He has been prominent in fraternal affairs, having been honored with election to the office of Grand Sire of the Sovereign Grand Lodge of the Independent Order of Odd Fellows. In 1918, he was nominated by the democrats and was elected to the office of governor of Oklahoma and was inaugurated in January, 1919.



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